REPORT RESUMES

ED 013 065 JC 670 418

JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS--APPRAISAL AND DEVELOPMENT. A REPORT TO CARNEGIE CORPORATION, NOVEMBER, 1965.

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PUB DATE NOV 65

EDRS PRICE MF-$1.75 HC-$17.44 436P.

DESCRIPTORS- *JUNIOR COLLEGES, *STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES, *COUNSELING SERVICES, COUNSELING PROGRAMS, STUDENT PROBLEMS, *STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK, ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, RESEARCH PROBLEMS, PROGRAM EVALUATION,

RESPONSIBILITY FOR RESPONDING TO GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL NEEDS OF STUDENTS USUALLY RESTS WITH STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS, WHICH CONSIST OF SERIES OF RELATED FUNCTIONS DESIGNED TO SUPPORT THE INSTITUTIONAL PROGRAM, RESPOND TO STUDENT NEEDS, AND FOSTER INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT. THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY WAS TO DETERMINE THE ADEQUACY OF FULFILLMENT OF THIS COMMITMENT. OBJECTIVES INCLUDED (1) ANALYSIS OF THE CULTURAL CONTEXT IN WHICH JUNIOR COLLEGES OPERATE, 2) DEFINITION OF CRITICAL NEEDS IN RESEARCH, 3) APPRAISAL OF TRAINING NEEDS AND RESOURCES FOR STAFFING PROGRAMS, 4) EXPLORATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL POTENTIALITIES WITHIN SELECTED JUNIOR COLLEGES, 5) APPRAISAL OF CURRENT PROGRAMS AND STAFF RESOURCES, AND 6) FORMULATION OF A SERIES OF RECOMMENDATIONS FOR STRENGTHENING JUNIOR COLLEGE PERSONNEL PROGRAMS IN THE FUTURE. WHEN MEASURED AGAINST CRITERIA OF SCOPE AND EFFECTIVENESS, STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES WERE FOUND TO BE INADEQUATE. RECOMMENDATIONS IN THE REPORT PERTAIN TO THE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF STUDENT PERSONNEL WORKERS AND DEFINITION OF CRITERIA FOR APPRAISAL OF SERVICES. COLLEGES IN VARIOUS REGIONS OF THE COUNTRY WITH THE STRONGEST PROGRAMS HAVE BEEN SELECTED TO SERVE AS DEMONSTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT CENTERS. (CLEARINGHOUSE DOCUMENT NUMBER JC 670 390 IS A SHORTER DISCUSSION BASED ON FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.) (HS)

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JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

Appraisal and Development

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

JUN 5 1967

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A Report to Carnegie Corporation, November, 1965

JC 670 418

A REPORT TO CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK

from the

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR APPRAISAL AND DEVELOPMENT OF JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

November 1965

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FOREWORD

The community college is to the development of American education in the second half of the twentieth century what the high school was to the expansion of educational opportunity between 1900 and 1950. The pages of this volume point out that there are now more than a million students enrolled in more than 700 two-year colleges in 49 states, although fewer than half of those in the public colleges are enrolled full time.

The community college is in fact the most rapidly developing educational institution in the United States. Many states are putting primary reliance on the expansion of community colleges in both size and number as a means of meeting the rapidly accelerating demand for education beyond the high school. Even states in which the four-year institutions have discouraged or opposed the establishment of community colleges by creating their own two-year branches, such as Ohio, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, have now recognized the necessity of permitting or even encouraging local communities to establish multi-purpose junior colleges responsive to local and regional needs.

One reason for change of heart concerning community colleges is that many public four-year institutions have decided to become more selective and to concentrate more strongly than before on advanced undergraduate, graduate, and professional education. In devising their master plans several states have compensated for more stringent admission requirements to four-year institutions by opening the door of educational opportunity to all or nearly all young people by keeping the community colleges relatively unselective.

Community colleges, therefore, have assumed the enormously difficult task of educating highly diversified student bodies. Medsker's chapter provides some notion of the wide range of students' scholastic ability, motivation, aspiration, and cultural background with which comprehensive community colleges have to cope. It is obvious that these institutions must provide highly differentiated educational programs. It should be equally clear that if students are to choose wisely among many different courses and curricula leading to a great variety of future careers, they must be assisted in identifying their abilities and aptitudes, in assessing their deficiencies and their potentialities, and in rationalizing their aspirations.

Once the moment of choice presumably was high school graduation. From high school students moved into the occupational arena or went on to four-year institutions, although many of the latter failed to earn their degrees. Now the community college is rapidly becoming the great distributive agency in American education. Here the student can make a fuller and perhaps more accurate inventory of his characteristics; test his aptitudes and interests in the classroom, the laboratory, or in work-study programs. Here he can revise his vocational and educational plans by bringing them more nearly in line with his reasonable expectations. Here he can establish his identity and at least begin to attain the independence that characterizes individuality and adulthood. The Committee on Appraisal and Development of Junior College Student Personnel Programs believes that the student is likely to do these things effectively only if the college recognizes the process of self-discovery as one of its principal purposes, and if the institution's personnel services are adequate in scope and quality to give the student necessary assistance.

Many of the advantages of community colleges are at the same time their limitations. Local governance may put a heavy hand on freedom of teaching and discussion. As an extension of the community, the junior college may be especially vulnerable to all sorts of pressures, some constructive and some unconstructive. The commendable desire of the community college to serve the economy of its immediate area, for example to provide trained technicians for local industries, may restrict students' vocational horizons and, while preparing them for immediate employment, fail to educate for the occupational adaptability that a changing technology and economy make essential. Living at home may make it difficult for the student to establish his identity and to attain independence without disruption of family ties. Such problems as these place unusual responsibilities on community colleges and challenge them to provide student personnel services of high quality.

The Committee has attempted to summarize the characteristics of an effective program of student personnel services for two-year institutions. It has also made an effort to appraise the effectiveness with which student personnel services are conceived and conducted in a representative sample of two-year institutions. The conclusion of these studies may be put bluntly: when measured against criteria of scope and effectiveness, student personnel programs in community colleges are woefully inadequate. The reports of the Committee's studies identify the principal deficiencies and point out where improvement is most essential. The Committee presents its constructive recommendations for upgrading the services which, to a very large degree, will determine the extent to which community colleges will discharge their very considerable responsibilities. It would be inappropriate to summarize these recommendations here. Suffice it to say that they deal with the recruitment and training of student personnel workers in and for the junior colleges, the definition of criteria for the appraisal of student personnel services, and the selection of colleges with the strongest student personnel programs in various regions of the country to serve as demonstration and development centers. The centers should work in close cooperation with universities engaged in the preparation of personnel workers and in the evaluation of student services.

The report also proposes means for the wide dissemination of information concerning the characteristics of effective student personnel programs among persons whose attitudes and support will go far in assuring their quality. There is reason to believe that many administrators of community colleges do not understand the essential nature, scope, and functioning of student personnel services. Without administrative insight and support these services will always be starved financially and they will fail to attain legitimacy. But legitimacy is also dependent on the understanding, participation, and backing of faculties. It is possible--even likely--that as community colleges reach for higher academic status their faculties will be less sympathetic with the wide range of purposes and functions which the community college in theory should profess, and be less ready to lend enthusiastic support to comprehensive student personnel programs. The Committee believes that it is essential, therefore, to engage all concerned with community colleges--citizens, members of governing boards, faculties, and administrators--in a study of its findings and recommendations.

The Committee looks to the appropriate agencies of the federal government, to private foundations, and to professional associations for the financial assistance, leadership, and organization necessary for a concerted effort to give student personnel services in community colleges the status they deserve and to permit them to attain the effectiveness which will justify a key role for two-year institutions in the education of young people.

T. R. McConnell, Chairman
Committee on Appraisal and Development of
Junior College Student Personnel Programs

November 1965

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In August, 1963, the Project for Appraisal and Development of Junior College Student Personnel Programs was established by the American Association of Junior Colleges with financial support from Carnegie Corporation of New York. T. R. McConnell, Chairman of the Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University of California in Berkeley, was appointed by the Association to head a National Committee of distinguished educators representing the disciplines of sociology, psychology, economics, and education.

Members of the National Committee served in advisory capacities and also participated in various activities such as preparing special papers, serving as consultants for a research development conference, and in a few instances participating as interviewers in the appraisal of junior college programs. Their willing contributions were highly significant in providing direction and momentum for the project.

The major activity for the first year centered in a research development conference which was held in April of 1964 at the University of Chicago and was supported by funds made available by the U. S. Office of Education. Fifty representatives from selected junior colleges throughout the country and twenty-eight consultants in higher education, research, and student personnel work were brought together for the five day conference. The junior college representatives and the consultants not only

attended the conference, but also participated in a variety of pre-conference and post-conference activities which were designed to identify critical research needs. The tape-recorded proceedings of the conference were reviewed by Marie Prahl who succeeded in the difficult task of providing a succinct summary of the conference discussions.

In addition to the eleven members of the National Committee, the following consultants made valuable contributions to the research conference: Allan H. Barton, Clyde E. Blocker, Max D. Engelhart, Melvene D. Hardee, Joseph F. Kaufman, Thomas Merson, Leo Munday, Robert H. Plummer, Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Phillip A. Tripp, James Wattenbarger, E. G. Williamson, C. Gilbert Wrenn, and Raymond J. Young.

Following the research conference the need for additional staff assistance to carry out the plans of the National Committee became apparent. The insight, research skill and basic understanding of student personnel work which Donald Hoyt demonstrated as chief research consultant for the conference led to his continuation as research consultant for the remainder of the project.

Three project coordinators were also needed. Jane Matson, with consultative assistance from Ralph Berdie, Joseph Cosand, and James Wattenbarger, was requested to identify and survey graduate training resources. Operating within a very limited time schedule, Dr. Matson managed to complete an appraisal of 61 graduate training centers, an accomplishment which was facilitated by her sensitivity to the needs of junior college counselors as well as the problems of counselor preparation.

James Nelson was requested to coordinate activities of six widely distributed junior colleges which had been selected to explore their potentialities for serving as developmental and demonstration centers. With virtually no precedent for such activities, he managed to formulate a basic plan which had structure but which also provided the freedom for each center to explore potentialities and conduct self-studies according to its own needs. Through his sensitivity, valuable guide lines for the future operation of such centers were developed. His assignment was one that could not have been achieved without the dedication of practitioners and particularly the capable leadership of center coordinators.

The following institutions and their coordinators participated in this project:

American River Junior College - Lorine Auginbaugh
Bakersfield College - Ronald McMasters
Fashion Institute of Technology - Marion Bradriss
Flint Community Junior College - Marie Prahl
Orange Coast College - John Buller and Earl Clancy
St. Petersburg Junior College - Wesley McClure

The appraisal of student personnel programs necessitated follow-up interviews by well-trained and experienced student personnel specialists. J. W. McDaniel was requested to plan a five day workshop for the interviewers prior to their visits. Despite considerable pressures of time, the group under his leadership managed to develop an interview guide which took in to account the many ideas of the participating interviewers. Serving as interviewers for the appraisal of the 49 sampled colleges having enrollments of more than one thousand students were two members of the National Committee, Joseph Fordyce and Eugene Shepard. Two project staff members, Jane Matson and James Nelson, and seven additional interviewers, Lewis Fibel, Robert Lindsey, Terry O'Banion, Jeanette Poore, Marie Prahl, Kenneth Sproul, and Alice Thurston were also involved. In addition, four staff members of the U. S. Office of Education, Donald Twiford, Joseph Pukach, Ray Warner and Virginia Keehan from the Guidance Services Branch, volunteered to visit 21 smaller junior colleges. Charles Collins of the National Committee also assisted with the small college interviews.

The writer is especially indebted to Thomas Merson, whose counsel and infectious optimism were so beneficial in the early stages of the project. Later, Buford Stefflre, as editorial advisor for the report to Carnegie, provided many helpful contributions in smoothing out "rough edges" in the report and in formulating a unitary format. Throughout the project, Mrs. Margaret Brown, secretary to the staff director, demonstrated considerable patience as well as remarkable skill and capacity to work effectively under intense pressure.

The staff director wishes to acknowledge the excellent accommodations provided by the Flint Board of Education and the responsive cooperation of the administrative staff and student personnel staff of Flint Community Junior College.

Assistance provided by members of the staff of the American Association of Junior Colleges under the capable leadership of

Edmund Gleazer, Jr., was not only creative but also sustaining during critical periods. Special acknowledgment is accorded the many members of the Student Personnel Commission of the Association who have consistently sought improvements in recent years despite limited staff and budget.

Finally, T. R. McConnell as chairman of the National Committee, kept the goals in focus and set the tone for the standards of excellence to be sought. His sense of the "significant" was truly inspiring.

These, then, are the people whose talents and genuine concern for improving the quality of junior college education through commitment to individuality were expressed in the many activities of the project.

Max R. Raines
Staff Director

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PART I

THE REPORT IN BRIEF

REPORT TO THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION ON APPRAISAL AND DEVELOPMENT OF JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

Max R. Raines
Michigan State University

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

America--its government and its people--has expressed a central commitment to improving the quality of life for all. Although such a commitment has long been a part of the American credo, the present maturity, affluence, and humanitarianism of the Nation engenders new possibilities. Foremost among these is the extension of education to more people for a longer time and with more varied purposes.

Such a commitment in this unique national context has resulted in the formation of new institutions and the development and creative use of old ones. The junior college represents both trends--its goals and functions freshly evaluated and appreciated in the light of tomorrow's needs and its numbers greatly increased. The junior college has been called the "people's comprehensive college" and its importance in preparing citizens for tomorrow likened to the role of the land grant college in the last century--a college in harmony with history. If we place our faith and hope in higher education, it must be facilitated by an institution near to the people whose lives it hopes to improve, inclusive not exclusive in its concern, and willing to accept the individual differences of its varied student body rather than to press for selective admissions and homogenized graduates. These three characteristics distinguish the junior college, especially the publicly supported one, for it is typically located near the homes of its students, practices an open door admission policy, and strives to provide personalized services to take into account various non-instructional needs of its students. Given the premise that we have determined to use our richness and power for a national effort to raise the quality of American life, logic leads us to an investment in the kind of education made possible by the junior college.

Commitment to the Community

Not withdrawal to the quiet mountain top of uninvolved scholarship but immediate participation in the dreams and dilemmas of the community is the way of the junior college. In order to have an influence on the community, it must be sensitive both to its immediate surroundings as well as to the larger world, for only in this way will the needs and problems of the student body have meaning. The junior college becomes a cultural center as well as an educational plant in its effort to improve the quality of life in the community. It is a place to take courses, to hear nationally respected speakers, to see plays and art exhibits, and in all ways to participate in what is best in our society.

The junior college serves as a bridge between "our town" and the universe, our problems and the human conditions, one person and mankind. The junior college represents a possible way by which the community may maintain its function as anchor and harbor in a world growing stranger. This placement of the junior college in the midst of the community from which its students come enables it to exercise its citizenship function in especially effective ways. Social problems can be studied first hand. The goal of making its students informed citizens who care about their relationship to others can be approached by relating the task of the college to the concerns of the community. The walls between the study of civics and the practice of good citizenship can be torn down just as can the wall between a formal educational institution and a larger community. Not only can the school become a resource to the community, but the community can become an extension of the school when they are both concerned with the common problem of the good life here and now as well as there and then.

Another advantage of placing the junior college where its students are literally and psychologically at home lies in the efficiency of such placement. The facilities of the college are more accessible and the cost to the student is less. Many state plans for higher education are taking this efficiency function of the junior college into account though often this argument regarding reduced costs hinders the recognition of another advantage. In the placement of a junior college near the homes of its students--more students will secure more education. The research shows that students attending junior colleges often say that they do so because its proximity to home is desirable in itself besides permitting a college education at less cost to them. The distinction between formally enrolled full-time students and others who secure educational advantages from the presence of the junior college is lessened, the impact of the college on the community is increased, and the college has a greater likelikhood of keeping in touch with the social reality of its immediate geographic area while it interprets and relates the larger world to the smaller.

Commitment to Accessibility

The second major characteristic generally associated with the junior college is its relatively permissive admission requirements. This open door policy of the junior college has at least four justifications: it provides an educational opportunity for many who otherwise would be denied one, it permits exploration and remediation for those uncertain of their goals or lacking skills needed for some college level work, it permits accommodation to a changing economy by providing training to workers with varied backgrounds, and it makes possible maximum influence on the community culture.

It is a hallmark of American education that students are provided with a variety of paths by which to reach their goals.

Although perhaps no decisions are completely reversible, the American system is known for the many second chances it gives students. This opportunity function is typified by the open door policy of the junior college. A second chance to demonstrate high academic skills is provided to those who did not do well in high school. The culturally restricted student is given additional years to adjust to academic demands before leaving the security of his family and neighborhood. The disadvantaged student may find college feasible because it permits flexibility of scheduling around necessary jobs.

Secondly, the open door policy permits the junior college to serve as a vehicle of exploration for the many who have not yet set themselves long-term goals and as a vehicle of remediation for those whose basic academic skills need improvement if they are to succeed in college. Exploration may take place as a student tries out various courses and relates his comfort and success in them to occupations in which they play a part. Work-study programs, of course, permit even more direct exploration as do part-time and summer jobs which frequently are an important part of the life of a junior college student. Still other exploration may occur through the student personnel program to be discussed later. The remedial aspect of the junior college curriculum is perhaps more controversial though still generally acknowledged as necessary for approximately one-third of the students. A discrepancy between high academic potential and low performance in the basic skills may be traced to a variety of causes, such as inadequate stimulation in the home for reading and study, late development of academic interests and a history of poor schooling. Students with such background may attend junior colleges in higher proportions than they do other colleges. If the open door policy is to really constitute an opportunity, the curriculum must provide remedial work for those who need it. Freedom to flunk out should be replaced by freedom to try again and in a new way to master the basic skills necessary for successful educational and vocational development. In short, the open door policy is characterized by the provision of a chance to explore widely the world within and the world without and to learn more about one's talents and needs in relation to life's demands and satisfactions.

Accelerating changes in the occupational structure are another reason for the open door policy. The contraction of certain industries and occupations because of technological advances, changes in taste or in our way of life, and differences in international trade all may result in workers being left without usable skills and being required to learn new ones. These workers usually will not fit the traditional pattern of the college student in age, background, or goals yet the junior college may assume responsibility for their retraining. Only a flexible admissions policy will permit them to benefit from this people's comprehensive college. Women who decide to enter the labor market at a later stage in their life than is usual may be especially helped by an educational institution that permits them, regardless of their age, to learn when they need to learn, to refresh old skills and to master new ones. The manpower needs in America seem best served by a conception of life long learning and a junior college whose doors are open to serve the needs of those whose career patterns are different from the ones we have known in the past. The woman whose work life begins in her thirties and forties and the man whose old career is ended by technological progress and whose new one must be begun in middle age are to be served by the open door junior college.

Finally, the junior college with its open door policy is strategically placed to affect the basic culture of the nation. To lessen the traditional differences between elite culture and mass culture, a large proportion of the population needs access to the natural and social sciences and to the humanities as envisioned by skillful interpreters. The open door junior college thus becomes the center for the best that is thought, said, and produced. It makes available complete curricula, single courses, exhibitions, conferences, and speeches with a consequent maximum impact on the community. Fine distinctions between students and others as well as formal barriers against participation on the basis of age or previous schooling give place to a policy which says the junior college is here to enrich the lives of all by serving many in a variety of ways.

Commitment to Individuality

The potentialities of the junior college cannot be realized without a well-conceived program for responding to group and individual needs of students. In its absence, the laudable ideals of opportunity, efficiency, manpower responsiveness and enlightened citizenship are lost in the failure to respond to the special needs of its students. Because these students have been shown to be in many ways a special population, the student personnel program provided must be tailored especially for them. High school programs cannot be transplanted unchanged to junior college soil nor are four-year college programs usually suitable for the junior college. While the nature of an effective program will vary among institutions, research points to some elements especially important to the junior college student--with his lower socio-economic status in a family less committed to education, his more practical motives in college selection and his greater uncertainty as to his goals when compared to his peers in four-year colleges.

Even among the high ability students, one-third change occupational goals during their stay in junior colleges. Students must have a channel through which to explore their own nature and the world of work. What does it profit an individual if the school is near enough to make attendance feasible and open enough to permit him to enter if, once in, he is not helped in those many non-instructional areas where help is necessary to promote his development? The adolescent who but recently considered college, the worker changing occupations in adult life and the woman now beginning to think of herself as a worker all need services beyond the classroom--to learn of the existence and nature of the junior college, to adjust to the demands and opportunities of the junior college, to make use of professional counseling help for vocational and personal planning, and to engage in activities furthering social and personal development. Provision of such opportunities is a major task of student personnel workers.

The changing balance between commitment and tentativeness in career development has particular significance for the junior college student and for the program that seeks to meet his needs. The student is at once firmly committed to present and long-range goals but even as he commits himself to the chain of activities prerequisite to his goals, he must acknowledge the necessarily tentative nature of all planning because of continuing changes in himself and in society. This dynamic balance between commitment and tentativeness can provide a great stimulus for self-exploration and, when properly facilitated by counseling and other student personnel services, should lead to greater self-awareness. Without such help, however, the student's anxiety may lead him to premature total commitment or a permanent posture of indecisiveness.

Finally, if the junior college believes in the importance of furthering an intellectual posture in all aspects of life and believes in using controversy and differences to further citizenship, the student personnel program has an important role to play.

Student government, clubs, forums, and other activities can make intellectualism and good citizenship an expected and incorporated part of the life of the student. The alternative is to stamp these postures with the alien juvenile stamp of school as separate from life. In summary, the junior college needs a complex student personnel program--the nature of which is not yet clear in all its details--to enable it to fulfill its special function of permitting enlightened choice to a special student body, to further social and personal growth beyond that achieved through classroom learning, to build on the simultaneous commitment and tentativeness of the junior college student, and to make the intellectual life of the positive use of controversy for furthering good citizenship a part of the educational program.

To review, the junior college would seem to serve best when its location permits the exercise of the efficiency function and makes possible maximum community impact, when its open door admissions policy permits the exercise of its opportunity and manpower functions and also furthers its influence on the culture of the community and its students' needed self-exploration, and when its student personnel services take account of the nature of its special student body and so serve as a catalyst for the realization of the many goals of this varied and growing institution.

Goals of the Project

The commitment to the community and the commitment to accessibility have been seen to accentuate the need for commitment to individuality in the junior college. To determine the adequacy with which this last commitment is being fulfilled, Carnegie Corporation provided funds for a two-year study of junior college student personnel programs. In cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges, an independent national committee of prominent educators was appointed under the leadership of T. R. McConnell, Chairman of the Center for Higher Education at the University of California in Berkely. The National Committee subsequently established its central goal as Appraisal and Development of Junior College Student Personnel Programs.

Within this context six major objectives were established by the National Committee.

1. To analyze the cultural context within which junior colleges operate.
2. To define critical research needs in junior college student personnel work.
3. To appraise training needs and resources for staffing programs.
4. To explore developmental potentialities within selected junior college.
5. To appraise current programs and staff resources.
6. To formulate a series of recommendations for strengthening junior college student personnel programs in the years ahead.

Activities of the Project

Cultural Context. Analysis of significant elements within the social, economic, and educational structure of our society were sought through a series of analytical papers prepared by noted authorities in these fields. It was their goal to identify those elements (some of which are discussed in the first sections of this paper) which have particular meaning for the development of a student personnel program geared to the needs of the junior college, its students, and the society which the college serves. Several of these papers were presented in preliminary form at a research development conference held in Chicago during April 1964. With a grant from the Cooperative Research Branch of the U. S. Office of Education, 50 junior college representatives and 28 consultants were brought together to consider the analytical papers and their implications for defining critical research needs in the student personnel field.

Research Needs. Deliberation of participants and consultants were synthesized by a group of research specialists. In addition to defining a wide range of research needs, the conference underscored the need for a survey and appraisal of existing student personnel programs and for a study of staffing as well as training resources within graduate centers.

Training Resources. A list of colleges and universities engaged in the preparation of counselors and student personnel workers was obtained. Of 106 institutions identified 61 replied to an informal questionnaire concerning the nature of their programs. Follow-up visitations were conducted in 8 universities which had shown considerable interest in the preparation of staff members for junior colleges or preparation of student personnel workers.

Developmental Centers. The National Committee also felt that some explorations should be launched with a few junior colleges having a reputation for providing strong personnel services. Six centers, with wide regional distribution, were selected. In addition to conducting intensive self-studies of their programs each center initiated an exploratory project that might contribute to the development of some particular facet of their program. Time did not permit completion of these projects, but some have been begun or are awaiting financial subsidy for implementation.

Appraisal Procedures. The need for a better understanding of the current status of student personnel work in junior colleges and the staffing resources within these programs led to the national survey reported here. Selection of a satisfactory sample and development of adequate instruments and procedures in gathering data presented a considerable challenge.

Of 719 two-year institutions operating in 1964, 493 had enrollments of less than 1,000 students while 226 had more than 1,000 students. Yet the larger institutions enrolled about three-fourths of slightly more than a million junior college students.

In the study, 100 smaller colleges and 50 larger colleges were selected randomly and proportionately from seven regions. Seventy-four smaller and 49 larger junior colleges actually participated; however, comparison of these samples with their respective populations indicated that they were not significantly different in age, type of control, and frequency of accreditation.

More than 500 staff members in the 123 participating colleges completed the Inventory of Selected College Functions (ISCF) and Inventory of Staff Resources (ISR).[1] Also, all of the larger colleges and 21 of the smaller colleges were visited by student personnel experts. Because the 21 smaller colleges were not adequately representative of the small college population, we focused our appraisal on the 49 larger colleges which were predominantly public and comprehensive junior colleges.

Twelve student personnel experts in junior college education were brought together for an extensive training workshop. During a five-day period they developed and field-tested an interview guide. Also, they agreed upon a basic frame of reference from which to make their clinical judgments. Each expert was assigned three to six colleges within his respective region. Responses to the inventories (ISCF and ISF) along with other institutional materials were reviewed prior to each visit. An average of seven staff members were interviewed during their day-long visits.

Subsequent to the visits, narrative descriptions of program developments along with clinical ratings of effectiveness were provided by each interviewer. The descriptions and ratings focused on 35 selected functions and upon 16 institutional characteristics which were believed to be related to program development.

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[1] See Appendix D.

A need to sharpen the focus of the study was apparent. Consequently, each interviewer was requested to select from the 35 functions those functions which he felt were basic to any junior college student personnel program. By majority consensus, 21 functions were selected for intensive analysis and constitute the basic student personnel program described below. A comparison of the narrative descriptions with the quantitative ratings provided for each function brought increased confidence to the comparability of judgments among the interviewers.

Project Recommendations. This report then contains the conclusions and recommendations of the National Committee. These recommendations have grown out of the several activities described above and embody the belief of the National Committee that improving junior college student personnel programs will require a many pronged attack.

A Basic Student Personnel Program

To indicate the frame of reference used by the investigators in their appraisal of current programs, a basic program is described here. By definition: The student personnel program in the junior college consists of a series of related functions designed to support the instructional program, respond to student needs and foster institutional development. When well conceived and implemented the functions require services of a qualified staff in sufficient numbers to provide:

(1) *orientation* to college and career opportunities and requirements,

(2) *appraisal* of individual potentialities and limitations,

(3) *consultation* with students about their plans, progress, and problems,

(4) *participation* of students in activities that supplement classroom experiences,

(5) *regulation* to provide an optimal climate for social and academic development,

(6) *services* that facilitate college attendance through a program of financial assistance, and facilitate transition to further education or employment, and

(7) *organization* that provides for continuing articulation, evaluation, and improvement of the student personnel program.

To maximize these contributions, the program must be structurally sound. *There are many ways to organize the basic functions,* but for our purposes five administrative units (not necessarily in order of importance) seem to suffice:

I. Admissions, Registration and Records
II. Placement and Financial Aids
III. Student Activities
IV. Guidance and Counseling
V. Central Administrative Unit

A sixth unit (Special Services) is sometimes required. Generally these services will have an embryonic state in one or more of the other administrative units. Eventually, with increased size comes a "spin off" effect that may necessitate establishment of a separate special services unit. While the nature of such a unit will relate the particular nature of the institution, it may include such services as housing, health, etc. The following description, however, is limited to a classification of the 21 basic functions into five administrative units.

I. Admissions, Registration and Records Unit

Assigned Functions	Illustrations of Related Tasks
Pre-College Information	... conferring with high school groups ... preparing and distributing descriptive material ... handling inquiries about college attendance
Applicant Appraisal	... evaluating transcripts of previous course work ... serving on admissions committee ... synthesizing available personnel data
Educational Testing	... selecting appropriate testing instruments ... administering tests to incoming students ... developing normative and predictive data
Personnel Records	... developing an integrated records system ... maintaining policies regarding record accessibility ... conducting research on student characteristics
Student Registration	... designing forms and procedures ... processing class changes, withdrawals, etc. ... projecting future enrollments
Academic Regulation	... implementing academic policies ... evaluating graduation eligibility ... interpreting requirements to students

II. Placement and Financial Aids Unit

Assigned Functions	Illustrations of Related Tasks
Financial Aids	... administering student loans ... handling part-time employment ... seeking funds for grant-in-aids ... analyzing financial needs of students
Graduate Placement	... maintaining liaison with employment agencies ... consulting with prospective employers ... arranging placement interviews ... conducting follow-up studies

III. Student Activities Unit

Assigned Functions	Illustrations of Related Tasks
Student Self-Government	... advising student government ... conducting leadership programs ... supervising student elections
Co-Curricular Activity	... analyzing needs for activities and facilities ... developing informal programs in student center ... supervising activities budget
Social Regulatory	... implementing social policies ... maintaining social calendar ... handling cases of social misconduct
Student Inductive	... training student guides ... interpreting student services and regulations ... introducing students to college activities

IV. Guidance and Counseling Unit

Assigned Functions	Illustrations of Related Tasks
Applicant Consulting	... interpreting test results to applicants ... interpreting curricular requirements ... assisting students in selecting courses
Student Advisement	... scheduling advisees in classes ... interpreting senior college requirements ... interpreting study skills to individual advisees

Group Orienting	... conducting orientation classes ... interpreting occupational information ... teaching effective study skills
Student Counseling	... making use of diagnostic tests ... conducting counseling interviews ... interpreting occupational information
Career Information	... identifying sources of occupational information ... studying manpower needs within the community and region ... developing effective methods for disseminating career information

V. Central Administration Unit

There are four additional functions which are the concern of each administrative unit but which require centralized implementation and coordination if the student personnel program is to have the unity of purpose and action required. The following functions are of prime significance for the administrator who supervises the total student personnel program.

Assigned Functions	Illustrations of Related Tasks
Program Articulation	... arranging for staff to serve on faculty committees ... arranging joint meetings of staff with high school counselors ... arranging visits of staff to senior colleges
In-Service Education	... providing for counselor supervision ... arranging for faculty advisor training ... arranging for staff participation in professional meetings
Program Evaluation	... interpreting studies of student characteristics and needs ... arranging for follow-up studies of former students ... developing experimental projects
Administrative Organization	... identifying and interpreting staffing needs ... preparing program budgetary requests ... preparing job descriptions and organizational patterns

Adequacy of Current Programs

Three-fourths of the Junior Colleges Have Inadequate Student Personnel Programs

The panel of interviewers provided clinical ratings of the effectiveness of implementation of functions following their visits to 49 larger junior colleges.

Not a single institution was judged to have implemented all of the 21 basic functions at a satisfactory level (excellent or good). Programs ranged from 19 satisfactory implementations to 15 unsatisfactory (poor or very poor). The median was 10 satisfactory, 6 unsatisfactory, and 5 in-between. A total program was regarded as satisfactory if at least two-thirds of the 21 basic functions had been implemented satisfactorily. Only 25 per cent of the larger colleges qualified at this level. (Informal analysis of data from smaller colleges suggested an even lower percentage.)

Adequate Guidance and Counseling Is Provided in Less Than One-Half of the Colleges

Of five functions directly pertaining to counseling and guidance of students, only one (student advisement) was satisfactory in more than one-half of the colleges. Satisfactory was defined here as a reasonable opportunity for students to obtain counseling assistance. One can estimate conservatively that a half million junior college students are being deprived of adequate opportunities for counseling. If, as many authorities in higher education have suggested, the ultimate success of the comprehensive concept of higher education rests upon adequate guidance, dramatic improvement is required nationally.

Adequate Provision of Career Information Is Extremely Rare in Junior Colleges

The career information function is vital in any institution which seeks to provide comprehensive occupational curricula. Rapid changes in the occupational structure of the nation complicate the task considerably. Almost none of the junior colleges were providing such information with any effectiveness. If any effort were made at all, it usually consisted of an out-dated file of occupational information that was seldom used by counselors or students. Those colleges which have attempted to do more have found it difficult to identify suitable sources of information that can be used effectively in group guidance or individual counseling sessions. A concerted and cooperative effort involving federal and state agencies as well as junior colleges will be required if any improvement is to be achieved.

Because of their geographic dispersion, junior colleges are in a unique position to tap manpower knowledge of local and regional leaders in business and industry. The personnel programs could be strengthened if they were to take greater initiative in developing procedures for exchange of information between employers and those who teach and counsel students.

Coordinative, Evaluative, and Up-grading Functions Are the Least Effectively Provided of All Functions

With the press of enrollments, sizable additions to the instructional staff each year, new facilities and new curricula to be incorporated almost annually, it is not surprising that action and expediency have taken precedence over reflection on goals as well as systematic evaluation of functions. Nevertheless, the need for effective implementation of coordinative, evaluative and up-grading functions is critical! These functions are not adequately provided in at least nine out of ten junior colleges. Institutional efforts to evaluate counseling or advisory programs, student activities, orientation, placement, etc., are seriously lacking. Systematic supervision of counselors or continuing in-service training programs for faculty advisors are rare. Well defined rationales for staffing the student personnel program or even statements of the objectives of various facets of the program are seldom found. In short, the prospects for improvement under current conditions are discouraging. Without professionally trained leadership supported by adequate staff and by substantive support from the college administration, the climate for development is less than favorable.

Almost None of the Junior Colleges Have the Resources to Serve as Community Guidance Centers

Those who recognize the critical nature of current manpower needs as well as concomitant needs for re-training have hoped that some educational agency within communities might respond to the guidance needs of youth and adults who are not currently enrolled in any educational program. Our investigations identified not more than four or five programs that were able to extend their guidance services to non-students. In fact, most junior colleges readily admit that evening students receive little or no attention as far as guidance is concerned. It should be added that this inadequacy does not stem from any lack of awareness of the need on the part of the staff but rather from the lack of personnel to provide guidance to evening students and to non-students. The idea of the community oriented college serving as a guidance center has considerable merit but is likely to be left at the idea stage unless dramatic increases in professional staffing are achieved.

Student Personnel Programs Lack the Professional Leadership That Would Enhance Development

While the absence of professional and creative leadership within student personnel programs was noted, one cannot conclude that increased professional training will automatically correct programming deficiencies. Too many personal and institutional variables are involved. At the same time it seems quite logical that given a favorable climate for development and the personnel with leadership qualities, professional training in behavorial sciences and student personnel specialities would enhance program development.

Among the 49 larger junior colleges, only 18 per cent of the directors held doctorates in the behavioral sciences, student personnel work or education. Forty per cent of the programs are headed by directors who do not have even minimal professional training (Master's degree in behavioral sciences or student personnel work).

Variables closely related to leadership were the most significant ones in differentiating strong and weak programs. For example staff members frequently reflected confusion about the job assignments; in-service training programs were ineffectual or did not exist; and there seemed to be little or no evidence of efforts to evaluate programs. Effective professional leadership is the major component in each of these characteristics.

Current Staffing Patterns Are Grossly Inadequate Both Quantitatively and Qualitatively

Based on the sampled institutions, it is estimated that approximately 3,000 of the 44,000 junior college staff members employed in the Fall of 1964 were engaged in student personnel work on at least a half-time basis. Of the estimated 3,000, approximately 1,800 have at least a Master's degree in psychology, sociology, or student personnel work. About 1,300 hold titles indicating a major responsibility in the Counseling and Guidance Unit, and the full-time equivalency for these counselors probably does not exceed 1,000. Therefore, it would be optimistic to say that there are more than 800 professional counselors employed on a full-time equivalency basis in the 719 junior colleges. These figures suggest a probable ratio of 1,200 students per professional counselor. However, such a figure does not reflect the disproportionate distribution of counselors among junior colleges. Some colleges have no professional counselors while other colleges approach a ratio of 300 students per counselor.

In view of the limited time which the student population remains in the junior college, the crucial nature of career decisions during this period, the immense range in aptitudes, abilities, and interests, the prevalence of unrealistic aspirations, the continuing shift in senior college curricular requirements and the "distributive" responsibility of comprehensive junior colleges, it is apparent that an additional 2,500 counselors should be employed if adequate counseling opportunities are to be provided.

Restrictive Elements in Program Development

The Nature and Purposes of Student Personnel Work Have Not Been Interpreted Effectively

If there is any doubt about this conclusion, one has only to select randomly a group of citizens, board members, legislators, college administrators, faculty or students and ask them what student personnel work is. The problem of interpretation arises from the diversity of activities incorporated in a comprehensive student personnel program, the mind set of those to whom student personnel work is to be interpreted, and the esoteric language of the practitioners which recently led a prominent educator to comment that student personnel work seems to be the "practice of a mystery."

Part of the problem lies in the need of the perceiver. The anxious administrator may emphasize "control" of student behavior, the faculty member bewildered by diversity of abilities may emphasize screening or "cooling out" the weak students, the manpower specialist may emphasize "guidance" (meaning manipulation) of students to fill manpower voids, etc. Each of these persons, therefore, interprets the "elephant" in terms of his own particular experiences and needs.

In the absence of common understanding of the comprehensive, multi-purpose nature of student personnel work and in view of the pressing needs for additional buildings, curricula, staff, etc., it is not surprising that the annual expenditure for student personnel services in the majority of junior colleges is grossly inadequate. The commitment to individuality "custom tailored" will not be fulfilled in a bargain basement. Programs which include admissions, registration, records, student activities, placement, financial aids, testing, counseling and guidance are not inexpensive.

Although the present research did not study costs, it seems doubtful that expenditures for student personnel programs exceed 5 per cent of the total instructional budget in most junior colleges at this time. Analysis of the staff, equipment and supplies required to meet the needs of the diverse student population in junior colleges would realistically suggest that a minimum expenditure of from 10 to 15 per cent of the total instructional budget be allocated to the student personnel program.

A Favorable Climate for Program Development Is Lacking at State Levels

Only Florida and California have provided a favorable climate at the state level for development of student personnel programs within junior colleges. California has used a credential system for certifying counselors in junior colleges. Florida has provided enabling legislation for the development of student personnel programs with suitable budgetary provisions. The effects of the favorable climates within these two states was noted in the analysis of the data. Comparison of programs in colleges from Florida and California (a total of 19 in the sample) with the remaining programs (30) from all other states revealed that the Florida and California group held a median rank in the upper third while the programs from other states held a median rank in the lowest third. The ranking was based on the number of favorably implemented functions within each program. While a number of variables may have contributed to the differences in median ranks including a possible bias in sampling, it seems likely that differences in state support were among the most significant factors.

Satisfactory Criteria and Related Sources of Empirical Data for Evaluation Do Not Exist

Efforts to appraise programs are seriously handicapped by the absence of well-established criteria. Surprising as it may be, there is little or no empirical evidence that a student personnel program has any real impact upon the student or institutional development. In the absence of criteria and related data, it is necessary to rely almost entirely on "conventional wisdom." This fact was quite apparent during a research development conference which brought student personnel directors from 50 well established junior colleges together with 28 consultants in educational research, junior college education, and student personnel work. Conference discussions repeatedly underscored the absence of criteria and empirical evidence.

The prospects for developing suitable criteria and sources of evidence are dim unless a concerted effort is made on a national scale with skilled research leadership. The potentialities of a variety of existing appraisal instruments have not been explored. Also, consideration of the development of new appraisal devices has received insufficient attention. The current level of research skills and research orientation among student personnel practitioners is not favorable. The bulk of these staff members are (by personal makeup) service oriented, and it is probably unrealistic to expect them to develop research skills. At the same time at least one person with a research knowledge and orientation should be employed on each staff. Such a person must be provided the time and encouragement to seek ways of evaluating various facets of the program if sound development is to be achieved.

University Training Programs Have Given Insufficient Attention to the Special Needs of Junior Colleges

Sixty-one replies to an informal inquiry about graduate training opportunities and visits to eight major universities revealed a growing interest among graduate schools in junior college student personnel work but little awareness or acknowledgment of the special needs of junior colleges. The vast majority of those responsible for training counselors or student personnel workers have had no experience in junior colleges. Most of the university respondents felt that some adaptation of current programs would be needed if they were to engage in preparation of personnel for junior colleges but not more than one-third seemed to see the considerable need for internships in junior college settings. Any change in attitudes or approaches is not likely to occur until the special needs of junior colleges are adequately interpreted to those responsible for student personnel and counselor education programs in graduate schools.

If candidates are carefully selected, logic (if not research evidence) leads to the conclusion that a two-year graduate program (full-time) consisting of course work in behavioral sciences, counseling, occupational information, junior college education, student personnel specialities and a supervised internship in a junior college is the minimal level of professional training which must be sought if any real improvement in the quality of programming is to be achieved. Those who are to direct student personnel programs are not apt to make the kind of contribution that is currently needed without graduate preparation at the doctorate level. Such preparation must include considerable emphasis upon institutional research if current programs are to advance to the level that is needed.

Enabling Conditions

While many restrictive elements have prevented adequate development of student personnel programs, it should be recognized that enabling conditions do exist. The following conditions provide some hope for the future:

About Ten Per Cent of the Current Programs Can Provide Leadership Through Demonstration and Developmental Activities

While the majority of programs are unsatisfactory, it was heartening to find effective programs in a few of the colleges. These institutions were providing a suitable climate for development by employing professionally trained staff members as well as providing adequate physical facilities, equipment, and supportive clerical personnel. Such programs were characterized by leadership that was creative and professionally minded. This does not mean, however, that these programs were doing all that might be done or that they would like to do. In fact, a characteristic dissatisfaction with the current state of their programs was much more apparent among stronger programs than the weaker programs. Most of the stronger programs were more apt to show concern for valid evidences of their strengths and weaknesses (though considerably frustrated by the elusive nature of such evidences). In contrast to weaker programs, they seemed to have a reasonably clear picture of what they hoped to accomplish and how their work was related to the goals of the institution. Their staff members were more likely to seek and take advantage of professional opportunities for development through advanced graduate training as well as membership in professional associations.

Hopefully, a national plan can be established that will capitalize on their potentialities for leadership and for cooperative alliances with nearby university training centers.

Recent Federal Recognition of Junior Colleges and Student Personnel Needs Is Encouraging

In this decade several Federal acts have made a substantial contribution to the development of junior colleges and student personnel programs. Notable among these are the National Defense Act (NDEA--recently amended to include junior colleges specifically), the Vocational Education Act, the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Higher Education Facilities Act, and the Economic Opportunity Act.[2]

The precedent of recognizing junior colleges (by name) in Federal legislation gives considerable hope for the future. Such specificity will overcome the "fish or fowl" dilemma which has plagued junior colleges when classified one time as a part of public schools and another time as part of higher education. If the specific intent of the congress to aid junior colleges continues to be delineated in legislation and if the needs of the institutions which will soon educate one-half of all college freshmen are adequately defined and interpreted, one can hope for dramatic improvements in the next decade.

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[2] See Appendix N for more complete descriptions of the contributions of the Federal acts.

There Is Growing Interest in Junior College Development Among Philanthropic Foundations

Prior to 1960 limited assistance was received from foundations. Since that time, the Kellogg Foundation, Carnegie Corporation, Esso Foundation, U. S. Steel Foundation, National Science Foundation, Ford Motor Company, General Motors, and other foundations have facilitated development with grants totalling more than three-quarters of a million dollars.

If this interest continues, the American Association of Junior Colleges, university training centers, and individual junior colleges can bring about real improvement on specific problems that restrict junior college improvements.

The grant provided by Carnegie Corporation for Appraisal and Development of Junior College Student Personnel Programs has provided a cornerstone for improvement that is likely to have considerable impact upon the future of junior college education.

Professional Associations Are Combining Their Resources to Seek Improvements in Student Personnel Programming

In 1956 the American Association of Junior Colleges established a Student Personnel Commission. Composed primarily of junior college presidents, the commission has stimulated summer workshops for junior college student personnel workers in colleges and universities, published a series of practical "how-to-do-it" bulletins and provided coordinators and leadership for the Association in the student personnel field.

The American College Personnel Association established a special commission in 1961 to give attention to the needs of junior colleges. Since that time an increasing number of programs at the National Convention have been devoted to junior colleges.

The work of these commissions has been closely coordinated by persons directly associated with both of them. A recent meeting revealed a sincere interest in combined and coordinated activities.

Recommendations

Effective student personnel programs are mandatory if the junior college is to fulfill its mission to our society. An institution sufficiently bold and imaginative to seek universal opportunities for education beyond high school can ill afford to be naive about its responsibility to respond to the individual needs of its students. Student personnel workers are the agents of individualization within the college. Without their full contribution the opportunity and manpower functions of the people's college are not likely to be achieved.

The needs of a non-selected and immensely diverse student population taxes the ingenuity of the most creative staff members. Regardless of the level of creativity, adequate student personnel programs will not develop in an unfavorable climate. Establishment of a favorable climate at national, state, and local levels requires recognition of ten critical needs and action to alleviate them.

RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING THE TEN MOST CRITICAL NEEDS

I. Staffing Standards. Staffing patterns must be established that will enable development of effective student personnel programs in every junior college.

II. Program Interpretation. The nature, purposes, and requirements of satisfactory programs for the junior college must be effectively interpreted to (1) those in policy level positions, (2) those involved in the instructional programs of junior colleges, (3) those engaged in graduate training of student personnel specialists and counselors, and (4) those for whom the program is designed, namely, the students and the community.

III. Leadership Development. Adequate training opportunities must be provided for those who are engaged in or will be assuming leadership roles in the development of student personnel programs.

IV. Counselor Preparation. A stepped-up program of recruitment and training of junior college counselors must be achieved with full recognition of the importance of supervised internships in junior college settings.

V. Criteria Development. Criteria and sources of related data pertaining to the development of student personnel programs must be sought through the collaborative efforts of research centers and junior colleges.

VI. Field Consultants. Those student personnel specialists in junior colleges having the background and experience to serve in leadership capacities must be made available as field consultants to junior colleges.

VII. Demonstration Centers. Those junior colleges with the strongest student personnel programs in various regions of the country must be provided the necessary resources to become demonstration and development centers.

VIII. Career Information. Adequate methods for the analysis, preparation, and distribution of career information must be established in conjunction with related agencies at the Federal, state, and local levels.

IX. Community Service. Experimentation in the development of community guidance centers within junior colleges must be launched.

X. Centralized Coordination. Centralized coordination for implementation of these recommendations must be provided at national, regional, and state levels.

Staffing Standards

STAFFING PATTERNS MUST BE ESTABLISHED THAT WILL ENABLE DEVELOPMENT OF EFFECTIVE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS IN EVERY JUNIOR COLLEGE. THESE STAFFING STANDARDS MUST, FOR THE PRESENT, BE BASED ON THE JUDGMENTS OF EXPERIENCED PRACTITIONERS UNTIL SUCH TIME AS RESEARCH EVIDENCE CONFIRMS THEIR VALIDITY OR DIRECTS THEIR REVISION.

Staff Qualifications. In view of the crucial nature of the student personnel program, the National Committee STRONGLY urges that the following qualifications be sought for staff working at the various levels within the five administrative units:

I. Admissions, Registration and Records Unit

Supervisory Level. A master's degree in behavioral sciences or student personnel work with a minimum of one additional year of graduate work emphasizing data processing, research, and educational testing.

Non-Supervisory Level. A master's degree in behavioral sciences or student personnel work.

II. Placement and Financial Aids

Supervisory Level. A master's degree in behavioral sciences, student personnel work, or business administration with personnel emphasis. Experience in business or industry should be sought.

Non-Supervisory Level. Graduate training should be the same as for the supervisory level; however, previous experience may be less broad.

III. Student Activities

Supervisory Level. A master's degree in behavioral sciences, student personnel work, or recreation with additional graduate work in group process, educational philosophy, and the legal aspects of student activities.

Non-Supervisory Level. Master's in behavioral sciences, student personnel work, or recreation.

IV. Guidance and Counseling Unit

Supervisory Level. Doctorate or near doctorate in behavioral sciences with major emphasis in counseling. The supervisor should be well qualified to provide adequate in-service training and supervision in counseling.

Assisting Supervisory Level. Essentially the same type of training as supervisor but at the post master's level.

Non-Supervisory Level.

(a) Counselor. Master's in behavioral sciences with emphasis upon diagnostic testing, counseling, group guidance processes, and occupational information.

(b) Advisory specialist. Staff member who has received intensive in-service training as a specialist in educational and academic advisement as well as interpretation of test data, and referral procedures.

(c) Faculty advisor. Faculty member who has received in-service training in academic advisement of students in those fields related to his own specialities.

V. Central Administrative Unit

Supervisory Level. Doctorate in behavioral sciences, higher education, or student personnel work with considerable experience in the various facets of the student personnel program at the junior college level.

Recommended Staffing Pattern. The following pattern is based on a careful analysis of the assigned functions and related activities within each administrative unit as well as the manhours required of the staff:

Administrative Unit	Staff Levels	Enrollment (Head Count) 500	1000	2500	5000
Admissions, Registration & Records	Supervisory	1	1	1	1
	Non-Supervisory	0	½	1	2
	Clerical	2	4	6	8
Placement & Financial Aids	Supervisory	½	½	1	1
	Non-Supervisory	0	0	½	1
	Clerical	1	1	1½	2
Student Activities	Supervisory	1	1	1	1
	Non-Supervisory	0	0	½	1
	Clerical	½	1	1	1
Central Administration	Supervisory	1	1	1	1
	Clerical	1	1	1	1

The staffing pattern for the Guidance and Counseling Unit requires special consideration because of the alternatives in building a program. In essence, there are three basic plans: (1) The Counselor Emphasis, (2) The Faculty Emphasis, and (3) The Specialization Emphasis.

The Counseling Emphasis. The rationale behind this plan is that any individual consultation with students is likely to have implications for career development and planning, decision making and the resolution of personal concerns. Therefore, the skills and sensitivity of a well-trained counseling program are needed to respond adequately to student needs which exist but would otherwise be unrecognized. Staffing for this plan would be as follows:

Staff Levels	Enrollment (Head Count) 500	1000	2500	5000
Supervisory				
General	1	1	1	1
Assisting	0	0	1	2
Non-Supervisory (Counselors)	1	2	8	16
Clerical	1	1½	2½	5

The Faculty Emphasis. The rationale for this is the belief that the predominant need of the majority of students is for academic advisement. Faculty members have more frequent contacts with students as well as special knowledge of course requirements within their academic field. If students are assigned to faculty advisors in disciplines related to their career objectives, it is anticipated that they will receive adequate advisement. By use of intra-staff referral, students who change their plans can be re-assigned. In addition, proponents believe that the responsibility for individual advisement helps to keep faculty members in tune with the needs of students and ultimately is the most economical plan for meeting student needs.

The Faculty Emphasis Plan can be regarded as adequate only in those programs where (1) new faculty members are exempted until they have completed a basic in-service training program, (2) special concern for advisory skills is shown in the selection of advisors, (3) a continuing in-service program is maintained, (4) an adequate number of professional counselors are available to handle referrals as well as students undecided about career and educational objectives, and (5) excellent articulation between the counseling program and the faculty advisory program is maintained. (It should be noted that the large comprehensive college which is growing rapidly will find it exceedingly difficult to meet these conditions.)

Staff ~~Levels~~	Enrollment (Head Count)			
	500	1000	2500	5000
Supervisory				
General	1	1	1	1
Assisting	0	0	1	2
Non-Supervisory				
Counselors	1	2	5	10
Faculty Advisors	(No more than 15 advisees without reduced teaching assignments)			
Clerical	1	1½	2½	5

The Specialization Emphasis. The rationale of this plan suggests that the strengths of the two preceding plans can be combined. Selected faculty members who have the interest and experience to serve effectively will be trained as advisory specialists. Their training will emphasize understanding of appraisal data, development of interviewing skills, up-dated knowledge of shifting curricular requirements within senior colleges, recognition of symptoms of severe emotional stress, techniques of referral, and knowledge of techniques for building effective study skills. Their assignment will include a reduced teaching load which permits time to participate in the in-service training program as well as individual consultation with students (The recommended ratio was based on the observation that it would require five weeks of full-time work to consult with 300 students during pre-registration periods.)

Staff Levels	Enrollment (Head Count)			
	500	1000	2500	5000
Supervisory				
General	1	1	1	1
Assisting				
Coord. of Counselors	0	0	0	1
Coord. of Advisory Specialists	0	½	1	1
Non-Supervisory				
Counselors	½	1	2½	5
Advisory Specialists	½	4	8	15*
Clerical	1	1½	2½	5

*full time equivalent

Program Interpretation

THE NATURE, PURPOSES, AND REQUIREMENTS OF SATISFACTORY PROGRAMS FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGE MUST BE EFFECTIVELY INTERPRETED TO (1) THOSE IN POLICY LEVEL POSITIONS, (2) THOSE INVOLVED IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS OF JUNIOR COLLEGES, (3) THOSE ENGAGED IN GRADUATE TRAINING OF STUDENT PERSONNEL SPECIALISTS AND COUNSELORS, AND (4) THOSE FOR WHOM THE PROGRAM IS DESIGNED, NAMELY, THE STUDENTS AND THE COMMUNITY.

While there seems to be an increasing awareness of the importance of student personnel programs in junior college education, support for development requires particular attention at this time. If the climate for development is to be favorable, key persons in positions of influence (federal and state officials, local board members, chief administrators, accrediting agency personnel, faculty representatives, and graduate training personnel) must be reached. Early attention must be given to a conference for personnel from graduate centers in order that training programs may be geared to the special needs of junior colleges. In addition, a variety of materials should be prepared that will best interpret the nature, scope, and requirements for effective programs.

Adequate implementation of these recommendations is most apt to occur if an advisory council composed of representatives from the groups to be reached is appointed, provided with adequate staff assistance and a budget for development of conferences and materials. A minimum of eighteen months will be necessary to plan and expedite these conferences. Coordination should be provided by the American Association of Junior Colleges working in close cooperation with related associations and particularly the Council of Student Personnel Associations (COSPA).

Leadership Development

ADEQUATE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES MUST BE PROVIDED FOR THOSE WHO ARE ENGAGED IN OR WILL BE ASSUMING LEADERSHIP ROLES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS.

Effective programs will not be developed without creative and professional leadership. Opportunities to acquire professional leadership skills must be provided in well conceived graduate training programs. Graduate fellowships must be sufficiently attractive to interest not only prospective leaders but also current personnel administrators who would profit from additional training. A staff member should be appointed within each graduate training center and provided the necessary budget to perform the following functions:

(1) Select candidates who have the potentialities to provide creative leadership.

(2) Plan a program of graduate study suited to the needs and background of each candidate.

(3) Arrange a supervised internship in a junior college for each administrative candidate after the candidate has completed one calendar year of full-time graduate work beyond the master's degree level.

(4) Supervise interns in cooperation with the participating junior colleges.

(5) Assist each intern in developing an institutional research project within the junior college to which he is assigned.

(6) Serve as a clearing house for placement of trainees who have completed at least a two-year program beyond the master's level.

Based upon analysis of available leadership and projected needs, the leadership training program should train at least 300 candidates at the doctorate (or near doctorate) level by 1971.

Counselor Preparation

A STEPPED-UP PROGRAM OF RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF JUNIOR COLLEGE COUNSELORS MUST BE ACHIEVED WITH FULL RECOGNITION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF SUPERVISED INTERNSHIPS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE SETTINGS.

An intensive program of recruitment and training of junior college counselors must be launched at the national level. Federal agencies and related associations must be brought together in a concerted effort to provide an adequate supply of professionally trained counselors during the next five years. With the advent of NDEA institutes for junior college counselors, the prospects are encouraging; however, the development of institutes and particularly the encouragement of potential counselors to take advantage of the institutes will require particular attention.

Current staff members should be encouraged by their administrators to up-grade their counseling skills. New sources of potential counselors must be explored. The latter _may_ be found among college graduates who are early retirees from business, industry, government, or armed services as well as women contemplating re-entry into the labor market. College seniors, particularly those in the behavioral sciences with previous attendance in junior colleges, might respond to a subsidized program of counselor training at the master's level.

A three-year program for people from these sources would be desirable if it combined graduate course work and on-the-job training in selected junior colleges. By combining their efforts graduate training centers and nearby junior colleges could devise cooperative "work-study" programs particularly for the recent college graduates. By using summer school and extension work to obtain graduate credits as well as by serving as full-time "student personnel assistants" the needs for didactic training, on-the-job training, and subsistence might be met. Such a plan would necessitate subsidy for tuition, for supervision time in junior colleges, and for subsistence stipends for trainees. Graduated experiences progressing from assignments that are largely clerical to more sophisticated levels during the three-year period would need to be carefully defined and implemented.

Special institutes and workshops for faculty members who have interest in becoming advisory specialists should be provided. Such institutes should be considered by those responsible for NDEA institutes at the national level.

Criteria Development

CRITERIA AND SOURCES OF RELATED DATA PERTAINING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS MUST BE SOUGHT THROUGH THE COLLABORATIVE EFFORTS OF RESEARCH CENTERS AND JUNIOR COLLEGES.

Until evaluative criteria are identified along with related sources of empirical data, it will be difficult for student personnel workers to maximize their potential contribution. Without such criteria the programs cannot be evaluated with any real certainty. Development of the kinds of criteria and empirical data that are needed require the highest level of creative research. Such creativity must be sought among specialists in research development who would use junior colleges as laboratories for their investigations. Coordination of research efforts on a national level is crucial if each study is to make an unduplicated contribution or if glaring gaps in investigations are to be avoided.

To accomplish the task, a research advisory council representative of a variety of research centers should be charged with the task of coordination and should have the funds to encourage or subsidize projects. Outstanding student personnel leaders in junior colleges should assist the council in identifying critical research needs. Particular attention should be given to development of instrumentation that can be widely used for obtaining research data within junior colleges.

Field Consultants

THOSE STUDENT PERSONNEL SPECIALISTS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES HAVING THE BACKGROUND AND EXPERIENCE TO SERVE IN LEADERSHIP CAPACITIES MUST BE MADE AVAILABLE AS FIELD CONSULTANTS TO JUNIOR COLLEGES.

Junior colleges that express interest in developing effective student personnel programs must have ready access to an established group of trained field consultants. These consultants should be selected from the ranks of student personnel practitioners and they should be provided the necessary background and training to maximize their effectiveness. Regional accrediting agencies should look to these consultants as experts in appraising program developments. The consultants should be particularly adept at stimulating institutional self-studies and in suggesting ideas for development. They should be provided with various materials and instruments that would foster appraisal and development. Their availability should be made known to all junior colleges and the cost of their services should be cooperatively financed by the serviced junior college and by special subsidies provided from governmental or foundation sources. Machinery for evaluation and improvement of their services should be a part of the comprehensive plan to provide field consultants. The total program for field consultants should be a cooperative venture of the American Association of Junior Colleges and the Regional Accrediting Agencies.

Demonstration Centers

THOSE JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH THE STRONGEST STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS IN VARIOUS REGIONS OF THE COUNTRY MUST BE PROVIDED THE NECESSARY RESOURCES TO BECOME DEMONSTRATION AND DEVELOPMENTAL CENTERS.

A few selected junior colleges within each region of the country should be selected as demonstration centers. They should be brought into a cooperative alliance with graduate training centers. Each demonstration center should be provided the necessary staff time to accommodate visiting personnel. In addition, they should be provided with sufficient funds to engage in developmental activities that might have particular significance for student personnel programming. Each center should have at least a half-time staff member trained in educational and institutional research in order that developmental activities might be adequately evaluated.

Special "flying institutes" should be considered for chief administrators and student personnel directors in order that they might visit several of the demonstration centers in succession. Directed observation of contrasting implementations should be provided by qualified coordinators for the "flying institutes." Special subsidy would be required to defray at least a portion of the travel expense involved for visiting participants.

Career Information

ADEQUATE METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS, PREPARATION, AND DISTRIBUTION OF CAREER INFORMATION MUST BE ESTABLISHED IN CONJUNCTION WITH RELATED AGENCIES AT THE FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL LEVELS.

The complexity of the current occupational structure and critical manpower needs require the services of specialists in the field of career information. Since junior colleges are not equipped with staff to keep abreast of a field that changes overnight, regional centers for the analysis, interpretation and distribution of career information should be considered. Pilot efforts in San Diego County should be carefully studied as a basis for formulating guidelines in the development of such centers. Such a venture should involve the cooperative efforts of the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare with adequate consultations from those industries who specialize in data processing, visual aids, and methods of rapid reproduction. The centers once established should also be used as training centers for counselors who need greater awareness of occupational information and resources.

Community Service

EXPERIMENTATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY GUIDANCE CENTERS WITHIN JUNIOR COLLEGES MUST BE LAUNCHED.

Those colleges which have been able to provide adequate guidance and counseling programs for their students should be identified as potential community guidance centers. Pilot programs should be established only in those communities where adequate surveys of other community resources indicates the need for the junior college to provide the service. Those colleges selected to participate in a two-year pilot project should be provided sufficient staff and equipment that services being offered to enrolled students will not be jeopardized. The time required to evaluate the program must also be considered in establishment of pilot projects. No program should be launched without a reasonable agreement among other community agencies that such a service is needed.

Centralized Coordination

CENTRALIZED COORDINATION FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF THESE RECOMMENDATIONS MUST BE PROVIDED AT NATIONAL, REGIONAL, AND STATE LEVELS.

Because of the complexities involved in implementing these recommendations and the problem in achieving adequate impetus, it is essential to provide for central coordination. As the major organization representing junior colleges within the country, the American Association of Junior Colleges should be provided with sufficient subsidy for a three-year period to coordinate and seek implementation of these proposals. Without such leadership there is considerable danger that possible development will dissipate through inaction. The scope of these recommendations suggests the need for at least one full-time staff member with adequate clerical assistance and operating budget to lay the ground work for expediting the recommendations and establishing the foundation for an enduring alliance among related associations and agencies to produce the kinds of student personnel programs that are needed in every junior college.

PART II

THE SOCIAL CONTEXT

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN AMERICAN SOCIETY

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One of the unique features of college education in the United States is the junior college--an institution that does not give a bachelor's degree but gives as much as two years of college work together with some vocational courses. The junior college came into being during the present century to meet a societal need.

At the beginning of the century there were eight institutions that can now be identified as junior colleges, with an enrollment of 100 students. By 1915 there were 74 junior colleges with a total enrollment of 2,363, as shown in Table 1. The junior college "movement" was about to start.

All of the early institutions were private, and 75 per cent of them as late as 1915 were private. It was not until 1947 that the public junior colleges outnumbered the private ones. However, the enrollment in public junior colleges exceeded that of private institutions after 1921. That decade marked the emergence of the typical junior college of today, more appropriately called the "community college."

There are two types of junior college. The earliest type is either a nineteenth century academy or seminary which offered a few college courses, and some music and art, together with vocational courses which trained people for business. Generally operated by a private non-profit foundation or by a church, these institutions sometimes expanded to become four-year colleges, while marginal four-year colleges sometimes cut down their ambitions and became junior colleges. They were often located in rural areas or in small cities, and they remained small, for the most part. In 1958 there were 277 private junior colleges out of a total of 677, more than half of them with less than 200 students, while there were only 15 private junior colleges with more than 1,000 students.

The second, or "community type" junior college got its start after World War I, especially in certain states, such as California, where there were few private four-year colleges and the pressure for college education was growing rapidly. California, Texas, and a few other states led the way by establishing local junior colleges, with a combination of state and local school district support.

These states recognized a need for an institution between the high school and the four-year college. This institution had to be easily accessible, low or moderate in cost, and open to all or nearly all high school graduates. It was appropriately called "the open door college." It must offer post-secondary opportunity to the many on terms acceptable to them.

The numerical success of the junior college is shown in Table I. About 14 per cent of the college students of the country were in junior colleges in 1963. About 35 per cent of first-year students were attending junior colleges.

Public junior colleges are strong and growing in medium-sized cities which do not have public four-year colleges. However, they are large and vigorous in most of the big cities, even though such cities maintain four-year colleges. For example, the Chicago City Junior College in 1963 registered more first and second-year students than did the Chicago branch of the University of Illinois, Northwestern University, the University of Chicago, De Paul, Loyola, and Roosevelt University combined. The reasons for this are summarized in an article by Kalk (1961), an administrator in the Chicago Junior College system.

But of all its contributions, probably the most significant has been its "open-door" policy, which has given vast numbers of students the opportunity of a lifetime--the opportunity to embark on a college career that might have been denied them through other college channels. This opportunity has been provided to a wide range of students: those who cannot afford to go away to college; those who cannot afford to pay tuition at other colleges (even state-supported ones) in the city; those whose poor high school records will not permit them to enter other colleges; those who work full-time and can attend college only at night; those whose home or work obligations allow them to attend college only via television; those who have been dropped from other colleges and need another chance to prove themselves; those who cannot decide whether or not they want to go to college; those who need a transition between home and going away to college (p. 13).

The junior colleges of the United States represent three traditional forces which have continued strong and probably will continue on into the future. They are:

1. The drive for educational opportunity, interpreted as free access to post-secondary institutions with relatively easy admission regulations.

2. The persistence of the community idea in American education. The junior college movement is national only in its geographical extension. It is consciously and explicitly a local community institution, responsive to community needs, and especially those of working-class and lower middle-class people.

3. Belief in the efficacy of general, liberal education as distinguished from technical-vocational education. Educational theorists have been frustrated by the stubborn preference of junior college students for the liberal arts courses which keep open for them the way to a four-year college degree. Most junior colleges of any size offer terminal vocational courses of training for the "semi-professions," such as minor positions in banks, laboratory technician jobs in hospitals and doctors' and dentists' offices, office-machine operators, secretarial work, police positions, and engineering draftsmen. The courses have had good practical results, their graduates getting satisfactory positions. Still, the liberal arts course is the most popular, though its vocational value is questionable for the average junior college student.

The Junior College and the Improvement of Mass Culture in America

Another way to look at the junior college is to see it in relation to the developing *mass culture* of the United States. This is an affluent society, in spite of all the talk about poverty. A higher proportion of youth can afford to attend college at their own or their family's expense than in any other country. An affluent urban society of this century has a *mass culture*. Since a culture is a common and standardized set of ways of thinking and behaving, a mass culture consists of the ways of thinking and behaving which are shared by most people. Americans share the same newspapers and TV programs. They have common amusements. They eat similar foods and wear similar clothing. They tend to drive the same types of automobiles. They take part in the same political processes and share the same domestic and foreign social and political problems.

In societies of the past there was an *elite culture* in addition to the mass culture, and the members of the elite group did the governing and set the standards for the society. But in a modern democratic and urban society, there is no such sharp distinction between elite and mass culture. The mass culture can be influenced by elite elements. The elements of an elite type of culture which are advantageous to a modern society are:

1. *Standards* of work, leisure, life-style, and civic activity which are valid because they contribute to the welfare of society and/or to the enjoyment of the individual. Such a standard does not define a thing as desirable simply because it

is "in fashion" or that it is the "customary way." The 40-hour work week is no more sacred than the current styles in men's hats and shoes.

2. Relation to a historical tradition of some sort--religious, esthetic, literary scientific. The tradition serves to provide standards that can resist the uniformity and conformity of the mass culture. But the tradition must be balanced by one or more change-producing agents.

3. Commitment to the principle of cultural development. The group carrying the culture must see itself as having a historical development that is related to the social environment in which it operates. For instance, it must see itself related to the trend of world interdependence of peoples, or to a trend toward ecumenism in religion, or to a trend toward technological development of society.

The junior college is in a specially powerful position to improve the mass culture. Through its access to students of working-class and lower middle-class backgrounds, it has a good opportunity to raise the cultural level of a large segment of the society.

The junior college can help people to use their growing amounts of leisure in the pursuit of cultural goals. It is the junior college graduate, who has the added leisure, more than the graduate of professional school or the Ph.D. The people with most education are the ones with least leisure today. While they may help to set standards of culture, they are not the true culture bearers.

The true culture bearers will tend to be people with a high school education plus two or three years of college or post-secondary school work. It is these people who will profit most from extension of cultural opportunities such as those envisaged in the legislation for the National Humanities Act Foundation. This Foundation will use government money to subsidize theaters, orchestras, choruses, to improve libraries and TV programs and to train people for work in these areas. As many as 50 metropolitan areas may be assisted to develop cultural centers. The community colleges in these areas will have the opportunity and the responsibility to cooperate with the new cultural centers.

The Contemporary Social Setting of the Junior College

The year 1965 finds the population of 18 year-olds at its maximum for the United States. This number was constant at about 2,200,000 from 1950 to 1955. Then it grew slowly to 2,775,000 in 1963. Due to the sharp post-war increase in the birth rate, this number jumped to 3,005,000 in 1964 and 3,674,000 in 1965. It will increase gradually to 4,000,000 over the next ten years.

Projections from the United States Office of Education indicate that the numbers of college entrants in the United States will grow 75 per cent during the ten years following 1963. This is based on the assumption that the percentage of an age group entering college will continue to increase at the same rate it increased between 1953 and 1963. Even if the proportion entering college were to level off at the 1965 rate, the numbers of college entrants would increase by 50 per cent from 1963 to 1973.

In any case there will be an extraordinarily rapid expansion of college enrollments, especially in the two or three years commencing in 1964. The junior colleges will expand more rapidly than the four-year colleges to meet this situation for two reasons:

1. The four-year colleges will not be able to expand rapidly enough to meet the increasing demand, especially since they are severely limited by their capacity to house students who are not living at home. Many students, unable to get housing in colleges away from home, will turn to the local junior college.

2. The four-year colleges will probably become more selective in their admissions policies, thus shunting off many applicants of marginal ability or school record to less selective junior colleges.

It seems clear that the junior college is the institution to which will fall many of the prosaic tasks of the expansion of higher education that lies immediately ahead. And to speak in terms of a decade is to give a false sense of security. The critical years are 1965 and 1966. The four-year colleges, large and small, will adjust relatively slowly to the expansion even though it has been foreseen.

During the coming decade the junior college will hold a strategic position as a unit of higher education through which many of the new tasks of higher education are accomplished.

State Master Plans. The junior college will figure in the state plans for higher education which are sweeping the country. As a local "commuter college" it is the most open to rapid expansion, and the least expensive unit in the state system.

The community college will increasingly be organized to serve a metropolitan area which includes a central city and its surrounding county or counties. Every metropolitan area which does not now have a public-supported higher institution can be expected to ask for a community college. Many counties which are not large enough to be metropolitan areas will also ask for a county or three- or four-county community college. The trend is toward the creation of a junior college district to receive state support, which is either coterminous with a standard metropolitan area or includes a number of contiguous school districts that vote to unite into a common junior college district.

Extension of Educational Opportunity. In the big cities the junior colleges are receiving increasing proportions of students from the currently disadvantaged sections of the population--Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Spanish Americans, rural white migrants to the cities, and children of European immigrants. With jobs hard to get, especially for high school graduates from these disadvantaged groups, they are likely to go on to the local community college hoping for greater job opportunities.

Some of these people will be competent students who need expert guidance into courses and programs that will open up careers for them. Others will be slow students who need basic mental skill training to bring them up to college level work.

Local Community Development. The vocational education function of the community college will be examined and worked out in closer relation to the needs and trends of local industry and business. Conceiving the metropolitan area as a relatively self-contained labor market, analyses will be made of manpower needs in this area, and those occupations of middle level for which some post-secondary education is indicated will become targets for the community college. For instance, the tourist and convention business may be important enough to justify a training program for office positions in hotels and tourist bureaus. Or the presence of an electronics industry may dictate the development of a curriculum for middle level technicians in this industry.

Development of Adult Education. It seems inevitable that the community college will become the main agent of adult or continuing education in the country. Recent enrollment data indicate a strong growth of evening enrollment. For example, a survey in Florida showed that half of the junior college enrollment was in evening courses, and this was divided equally between non-vocational and vocational courses.

With the tremendous growth of leisure time, many people are turning to studies for their own amusement or stimulation. At the same time, the rapid change in the demands of many jobs require a continual process of re-training in one's vocation.

Probably the community college will become responsible for setting up and operating an Adult Education Center, with library, conference, and classroom space available at all hours of the day and evening.

Social Functions of the Junior College

There are four main functions which the junior college will be called upon to perform for our society during the next decade. Each of these functions requires a guidance program of a certain nature. None of these functions can be performed adequately without a guidance program that is much more developed than it is today in the average junior college.

1. The Opportunity Function. Since World War II a conviction has been growing in the United States that education beyond the high school should be available and free to a very large proportion of American youth. The Educational Policies Commission (1964) asserted that education at this level should be accessible to all, regardless of sex, racial, religious, cultural, or economic status, and concluded its report with the following paragraph.

> The goal of universal education beyond the high school is no more utopian than the goal of full citizenship for all Americans, for the first is becoming prerequisite to the second. If a person is adjudged incapable of growth toward a free mind today, he has been adjudged incapable of the dignity of full citizenship in a free society. That is a judgment which no American conscious of his ideals and traditions can likely make (p. 36).

This was a reiteration of the bold proposal made in 1947 by

President Truman's Commission on Higher Education that "the time has come to make education through the 14th grade available in the same way that high school education is now available (p. 37)."

At that time there was considerable doubt in the minds of many people whether as many as half of the population was mentally capable of college-level work. It was still being maintained at that time that an IQ of 110 was necessary to grasp such college-preparatory subjects as algebra, and thus the proportion of youth with college-level ability was regarded as no more than 25 per cent of the total age group.

Since then, educators have become less sure about the "fixity" of the IQ, and at the same time they have adopted the view that students with average or better mental ability can usefully study 13th and 14th grade subjects. Also a few students of below 100 IQ can do post-high school work successfully.

During the post-war period it has also become abundantly clear that education is more than ever the principal means of self-improvement in the economic as well as the cultural area. In order to maintain a high level of economic opportunity and to maintain a desirable degree of fluidity in the social structure, education must be freely available through high school and beyond high school.

As the colleges and junior colleges expand in size, they are likely to diversify and to divide the labor of offering higher education among themselves by forming at least two and maybe three or four types of post-high school institutions.

This diversification is seen in the recent State Master Plans for Higher Education that have been adopted in several states. In California there are three types of higher institutions--junior colleges, state colleges, and the state university. The university is to be the major agency for training in research and for professional schools. The state colleges are to offer liberal arts and teacher education up to the master's degree.

The junior colleges are to offer the first two years of college liberal arts and to offer terminal occupational training. Other state master plans, such as the one recently proposed in Illinois, make the same kind of distinctions. While the state university will continue to receive undergraduate students, they will be highly selected for their academic ability. On the other hand, the junior colleges will accept all who apply with a high school diploma in hand.

Under these conditions, as college-going becomes more popular, some of the public junior colleges draw students from the very bottom of the high school graduates in scholastic ability. In one large city, the median scholastic aptitude score of entering junior college students is at the 25th percentile of college entrants nationally. Twenty-five per cent of the entering students in this college are seriously deficient for college-level academic work.

Recognizing this trend toward separation of colleges into various types, Frank H. Bowles (1959) now of the Ford Foundation, suggested that the United States may be developing a dual system of higher education.

One segment consists of liberal arts colleges and the major universities, which prepare students for the professions and management, scholarship and research. The other segment consists of institutions in which as many as three-fourths of the students stay no more than one to three years. It prepares students for jobs at the technician level and for occupations pre-supposing more general education than the high school graduate has; but slightly below the professions and business management in prestige.

The dominant universities and their feeder colleges will probably become more selective and more difficult of access than they were at the beginning of the present decade. The other segment of post-secondary education will be relatively non-selective as far as academic record is concerned. Student mortality will be high, as may be expected in an institution which maximizes opportunity to all kinds of students.

Transfer from one segment to the other will be maintained as free as possible, based on evidence that the candidate can pursue higher level courses successfully. Thus the concept of mass higher education will be effectively combined with that of selective higher education in this country.

2. The Efficiency or Economy Function. Many young people of families of moderate means can ill afford the cost of room and board away from home for the first two college years. And the great state universities are deliberately reducing or limiting the size of their first two years' enrollment so as to accommodate more third and fourth year and graduate students. Thus the com-

munity college will be called on increasingly to prepare young people in their own communities at a relatively low cost for the third and later years of university work.

For this function the local community or junior college needs not only good freshman and sophomore instruction but also good guidance and counseling to help students who have various kinds of ability and motivation for further college work to decide where to go, which kinds of specialization to pursue, and how to get the necessary financial assistance.

3. The Citizenship Function. The recent statement of the Educational Policies Commission (1964) argues effectively for the value to society of two years of college-level education that is aimed at teaching young people to think seriously and actively about the problems of a modern democratic society. The community college can aim to provide a kind of education that stimulates intellectual growth and civic responsibility in young people who will not go on to further college education.

To do this with young people of only average scholastic ability is not going to be easy. There will need to be curriculum experiments tied to sophisticated studies of the reactions of young people to the intellectual stimulation they are getting. The guidance and counseling staff will need to cooperate with the instructional staff in the planning and evaluation of these experiments.

The citizenship function should not be interpreted in purely rational terms as the giving of knowledge on civic affairs to people. It also includes a large non-intellective aspect of building toward social cohesion by enlisting young people and mature adults in the interchange of ideas and experience relative to the problems of living in the modern community. For example, one problem which divides people today is that of urban renewal. How should public funds be used to help renew the city? Should they be concentrated on subsidized low-rent housing? Or should they be used partly to subsidize the development of housing for middle-income people? Where should the low-rent housing be placed? Should it be scattered around the city, or concentrated in areas of low income?

People from all ethnic and economic groups in the community could be brought into the discussion of local community issues through forums, round-tables, study and discussion groups. There could be a conscious effort to open up channels of communication between various religious, racial, and socio-economic groups. This kind of program could find a place in the community college.

4. The Manpower Function. As has already been noted, the working force in the United States is hungry for thousands of people trained at the technician level, which generally means at the post-high school level. In 1960 there were about 195,000 students enrolled in terminal occupation courses at a post-high school level, and 153,000 of these were in junior colleges. This was about 20 per cent of junior college enrollment. The occupations for which these courses provide training are increasing more rapidly in numbers of positions than any other large

category. Thus, while the projected increase for 1960-1970 in the total category of professional and technical jobs is 42 per cent, the sub-professional and technical jobs within this category for which junior colleges might provide training are expected to increase 75 per cent.

There are two kinds of institutions which may offer post-high school technical education--the separate technical institute and the comprehensive junior college. The consensus of opinion seems to be that the comprehensive junior college offers the better way of performing this function.

Yet some educators have voiced doubts whether the comprehensive junior college can actually serve the manpower function of providing people trained for middle-level technical jobs. McConnell (in press) speaks of the "tendency of institutions to imitate prestigious models. I have in mind the probability that, as junior colleges or community colleges are recognized as belonging to systems of higher education--as they now are in California and other states as well--rather than as extensions of secondary education, some of the values of the comprehensive institution may become increasingly precarious. Investigations at the Center for the Study of Higher Education at Berkeley have shown that junior college teachers who previously taught in high schools and those who were recruited from four-year colleges or directly from university graduate schools tended to differ in their attitudes toward some of the functions or programs of the comprehensive 'community college.' Those who came from the high schools were more favorably inclined toward unselective admission, remedial education, terminal curricula, and educational and vocational counseling. There is a movement in the California community colleges to select faculty members with higher academic qualifications and to secure them directly from the graduate schools. It is no longer necessary in California to take professional courses in education to secure at least a temporary junior college teaching credential. Without a background of professional courses on junior college education, new junior college teachers may have a narrower conception of the purposes of the institution and may be less receptive to the comprehensive principle."

McConnell's opinion is vigorously disputed by the majority of junior college leaders, who point out that the enrollment in terminal occupational courses is on the increase, and new courses of this type are being organized. They believe that the comprehensive community college will grow in numbers and effectiveness. The alternative that is suggested by McConnell and others is the development of area post-secondary vocational schools, which will combine work and schooling. These might be operated by state and metropolitan educational authorities, or they might be organized under other branches of government service.

There is a very real problem whether the community college as an institution can make itself truly comprehensive, and thus serve to train people for technical and semi-professional jobs as well as prepare other people for university work.

Thus it is not yet clear whether the junior college can serve the manpower function. With a clear-cut preference on the part of most junior college students for the academic rather than the occupational curriculum, and with the equally clear fact of very high mortality among junior college students in the academic curriculum, there seems to be a need for guidance of students to help them choose a program suited to their abilities as well as to labor force needs.

Conclusions

The commitment of the American society to the maintenance and expansion of opportunity for post-secondary education will be realized primarily through the junior colleges, which may have to double their total enrollment during the next five years. The junior college must meet a variety of needs that other higher institutions cannot or will not meet. It must do this at relatively low cost. During the critical years that lie immediately ahead, the junior colleges will have to meet emergencies due to rapid expansion of the college age population, while the four-year colleges adjust themselves to the new situation.

Table 1

Growth of Junior Colleges[a]

School Year	Number of Colleges Pub.	Number of Colleges Priv.	Enrollment (thousands) Pub.	Priv.	%Pub.	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	Other[b]	Total
1900-01	0	8	0	0.1	0				0.1
1915-16	19	55	0.6	1.8	25				2.4
1921-22	70	137	8.3	7.7	52				16.0
1925-26	136	189	20.1	15.4	57				35.5
1929-30	178	258	45	29	61				74
1933-34	219	302	75	33	69				108
1938-39	258	317	141	56	71	97	47	53	197
1939-40						106	57	73	236
1947-48	328	323	379	122	76	197	119	185	501
1949-50						183	103	277	563
1952-53	327	267	490	71	87	156	70	334	561
1954-55	336	260	618	78	89	191	86	420	696
1957-58	391	276	793	100	89	331	158	403	893
1959-60[c]	390	273	712	104	87	347	164	306	816
1963-64[d]	423	270	805	110	88	542	214	158	914

[a] Adapted from Gleazer, 1961.

[b] This classification varies somewhat from year to year. It includes "adult" and "special" students, most of whom are part-time.

[c] This apparent decline in 1959-60 is the result of changes of program in several university extension centers which removes them from the category of 2-year colleges.

[d] Data from private communication from office of American Association of Junior Colleges.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF CHANGING TECHNOLOGY UPON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION

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and Training
Department of Labor

The rapid pace of scientific and technological change is recognized by almost everyone as a dominant fact of our time. Probably, the single most serious result of this technological progress, from a manpower standpoint, is the constant shifting that takes place in the nature of jobs and in occupational patterns. The growing complexity of work makes it imperative to develop a more flexible and better prepared work force. Thus, to help young people prepare for effective participation in today's job market requires constant reshaping of the country's educational and training system to link it with, and make it responsive to, current and prospective occupational changes. Perhaps of even greater importance is the fact that a well-educated person can not only contribute more effectively to the productive capacity of the economy but can also lead a more useful and satisfying life as a citizen.

The changing demands of the work-a-day world, at a time when unprecedented numbers of young people are reaching college age and need college or other kinds of post-high school training, present the Nation's junior and community colleges with a unique opportunity and a challenge far beyond any they have met in the past. These institutions can and must take steps to relate their programs to the needs of the job market for highly trained workers. They can and must join the war on poverty and reach out to serve more and more young people from families without traditions of college attendance. Because of their pathbreaking experience in developing comprehensive curriculums to serve young people with diverse abilities, needs, and interests, junior colleges can help their students and their communities by preparing youngsters for those occupations in greatest demand and for which 2 years of college-level training is sufficient preparation.

Junior colleges can make a major contribution to meeting the Nation's manpower development needs by expanding their programs for the training and preparation of technicians--a key group of workers in our economy. The Department of Labor's most recent projections of the Nation's manpower requirements for the decade ahead (to 1975) confirm previous findings that professional, technical and kindred workers, will continue to maintain their preeminent position as the fastest growing occupational group.

Past Growth of Technician Employment

Between 1950 and 1960, the total number of persons in our labor force increased by 14.5 per cent. But, the 1960 Census of Population makes it apparent that there was uneven growth among occupations and even among the white collar ones. For the professional and technical group as a whole, employment rose by almost 50 per cent. In contrast, the employment of chemists only expanded by approximately 12 per cent. One group among the professional and technical workers stands out--the technician group--because of an increase in employment which was far greater than the average for the professional and technical group as a whole.

The sharpest growth in employment of technicians occurred among those in electrical and electronics work; the number rose from about 11,000 in 1950 to more than 90,000 in 1960. The number of engineering and physical science technicians doubled in this same period, rising from about 91,000 to about 184,000; and the number of technicians in the great variety of other technician occupations ranging from that of food tester to stage technician, increased still more rapidly. Taken all together, the number of technicians reported by the Census of Population rose from fewer than 200,000 in 1950 to more than 480,000 in 1960, a growth of over 140 per cent in contrast to the increase of less than 50 per cent in professional and technical workers as a whole and 14.5 per cent in total employment in all occupations.

The research and development activities in this country provide employment for scientists, engineers and technicians. The results of these activities are being more quickly taken from the laboratory and applied in industry and home uses. The manufacture and utilization of the research and development products create more jobs for technicians. It is becoming more apparent that the complexity of the products manufactured are requiring, in many cases, more than the skill and education of the average craftsman. A theoretical knowledge and the ability to deal with mathematical concepts, important in so many technician jobs, require the kind of education obtainable at the junior college level.

Future Demand for Technicians

The most recent Department of Labor studies (National Science Foundation, 1964) of the demand for technicians indicate that the supply of technicians is expected to fall short of meeting the demand for these workers. The demand for technicians is projected to grow at about the same rate as the demand for scientists and engineers. On this basis, approximately 700,000 new technicians will be needed over the 1960 decade.

Where Technicians Receive Their Training

When Congress passed the Manpower Development and Training Act in 1962, it directed the Secretary of Labor to conduct research in the area of manpower resources. The Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, which has the responsibility for carrying out the research activities under Title I of the Act, sponsored in April 1963 the first nation-wide survey (U. S. Department of Labor, 1964) of where workers with less than a college degree get their training.

This study showed that among those with formal training in the electrical and electronic and other engineering and physical science technician fields, 34 per cent of the training had been taken in technical institutes, 24.5 per cent in the Armed Forces, 17.5 per cent in correspondence schools and only 4.4 per cent in junior colleges. In the medical and dental technician fields, more than 40 per cent of the training had been taken in the Armed Forces, almost 40 per cent in special schools, and 7.0 per cent in technical institutes and 7 per cent in junior colleges.

More than 40 per cent of those who took medical and dental training had never had jobs in the fields for which they trained. In contrast, more than 50 per cent of the electronics and physical science technicians had used their training on their last job and about 14 per cent had used it on a prior job.

More than three-fourths of the technicians claimed to have learned their current jobs through on-the-job training. More than a third of the technicians stated that on-the-job training was the most helpful way in which their jobs were learned. Only 11 per cent of the technicians in electrical and electronic and other engineering and physical science jobs and only 25 per cent among other technicians felt that formal training had been the most helpful way in which they learned their current jobs.

The dissatisfaction with school preparation for work expressed by so many technicians undoubtedly reflects in large measure the inadequacy of training received at the high school level or in a limited number of college courses. Another study by the Department of Labor (Stambler & Lefkowitz, 1964) which is related specifically to the training of technicians indicates that only 11 per cent of the engineering and physical science technicians in the labor force in 1960 had obtained an associate or higher college degree; about 40 per cent of this group had no college training whatever. Similarly, only 22 per cent of the medical and dental technicians in the labor force in 1960 had obtained an associate or higher college degree and 30 per cent had no college training whatever.

The value of at least 2 years of training in technical occupations is clearly shown by the data on the demand for new college graduates which the Department of Labor collects each spring. The Department reports that recruitment of 2-year college graduates is conducted in a much less formal way than it is for the 4-year graduates, with the major exception being recruitment for well-trained engineering technicians. Because of the very strong demand for such personnel, employers from many areas visit the better known institutions which train engineering technicians.

In view of the superior employment opportunities of students with sound preparation which qualifies them for technical occupations, it would appear that the milieu in which training is given, the way training is given, the curricula, and the duration of training should all be re-examined in light of the implied criticism of much of the formal training provided. It is especially important also to find means to attract and hold youngsters who do not now develop their abilities to their highest potentiality because they do not see the relevance of the typical college program to their interests and needs.

Implications of Manpower Trends for Junior College Education

If junior colleges are to make a more significant contribution to the training of technicians, then considerable rethinking and reorientation of programs are necessary on the part of the majority of junior colleges. These institutions must come to some clear-cut decisions about their role in the educational process for meeting the Nation's manpower requirements in the technician field.

Fortunately a growing number of junior and community colleges as well as technical institutes have already developed programs for technical education, aided by the provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. By 1963, the number of such institutions with programs eligible for aid under the Act had risen to more than 200 and enrollments in full-time technical programs totalled close to 40,000; there were nearly 50,000 additional enrollments in extension courses. Doubtless a good many junior college students were enrolled in other programs for technicians, but this still would represent only a small fraction of the total enrollments in 2-year college programs in that year (over 800,000), and only a fraction of total enrollments in terminal occupational curriculums (144,000). It is encouraging, however, to find that enrollments in terminal occupational programs rose far more rapidly than total enrollments in 1964. In the fall of 1964, terminal occupational enrollments jumped to 278,000 and the proportion of such enrollments to total 2-year enrollments rose from less than 20 per cent in 1963 to 27 per cent of the total (nearly a million) in 1964. This is all the more significant since enrollments in junior colleges increased twice as fast as in 4-year institutions (18 per cent in 2-year institutes compared with 9 per cent in 4-year institutes).

Despite these gains, all of the Department of Labor studies point up the fact that the demand for well-trained technicians will far outstrip the supply of these workers. The Armed Forces, which for many years was an important institution providing training for these workers will be processing a smaller proportion of young males of military age in future years. Many of the large numbers of 18, 19 and 20 year olds who will be entering our labor force in the next few years will not have sufficient training for our increasingly complex world of work. The junior colleges can offer many of these young persons the opportunity to adequately prepare themselves for the new world of work.

Because the area of work for which many junior colleges would be preparing their students is in the vanguard of technological change, these schools must be especially alert to changing educational requirements by industry. This calls for an especially close working relationship between educators and employers. The need for adequate vocational guidance services cannot be overstressed. A new Department of Labor research project (U. S. Department of Labor, 1965) seeking answers to the question of why critical shortages exist in certain technical occupations found that most of the workers interviewed in the shortage areas had inadequate information about employment opportunities. Guidance personnel need to work closely with employment service placement officers to insure a reconciliation between the educational system and the "world of work." They can look forward to expanded and improved information about changing occupational requirements as a result of the greater emphasis on developing such information flowing from the requirements of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. The Act requires close cooperation between State Vocational Education Departments and public employment service agencies to insure realistic meshing of vocational education programs with employment requirements. The Department of Labor has already initiated special research projects to develop the more detailed information required on a local level and to fit local information into a national framework of current and anticipated occupational needs.

Service Occupations

It is probably customary to think of the American economy as one typified by the Detroit automobile plant. However, the cold facts tell us otherwise--we are now a "service economy." That is, we are the first nation in the history of the world in which more than half of the employed population is not involved in the production of tangible goods.

This fact has tremendous significance for the junior colleges. There is, of course, the question of which service industries and occupations can be expected to offer growing employment opportunities, and these will be noted shortly. First, however, let us consider some of the broader implications of this shift to a service economy. As compared to manufacturing, there are higher proportions of women and of older workers employed in the service industries, as well as a higher proportion of part-time workers. This would suggest that there is a particular need for junior colleges to assist in the re-training of mature workers displaced by technological change, and to provide their female students with marketable skills, perhaps for later use. In each of these instances, training for the service industries will be especially appropriate.

Another implication of our service-oriented economy is an increased need for diversity and flexibility in educational programs. It will be necessary, more than ever before, that junior colleges take stock of the mechanisms through which they perceive the "outside" world--including, particularly, the changing complexion of nearby communities. In addition, many of the service jobs involve a direct contact with other people (thus offering hope for a reversal of the depersonalizing effect of modern industrial work) so there must be a real commitment to the socializing goal of education.

As to specific kinds of work expected to be in heavy demand in coming years, a useful guideline would probably be a recognition of the fact that the anticipated output of four-year colleges will simply not be adequate to meet requirements for many occupations. Thus, major re-alignment of functions will probably occur in the occupations normally entered by college graduates, with less highly trained workers taking over the relatively routine functions of the professionals. This is already taking place on a large scale in the engineering and health fields, and will undoubtedly accelerate. In the rapidly expanding activities related to water supply, air pollution, and waste disposal, the junior colleges are in an especially fortunate position, since these activities are new enough not to have developed rigid systems of formal professional requirements for employment. There will, of course, also be a need for large numbers of trained repair and maintenance personnel to service the increasingly complex automobiles, industrial machinery, office equipment and household appliances.

As a related development, we are seeing increased use of a wide variety of contract services. Management, consulting, and maintenance firms are frequently able, because of their rather intensive specialization, to perform needed services efficiently and economically, so that demand for persons qualified in a relatively narrow sense will be favorable. This also implies a growth in openings for those whose talents run toward the operation of small businesses.

Insofar as prestige is concerned, some of the service occupations in this country are not rated highly. However, this attitude is culturally determined, and is certainly not immune to modification. People have not always felt this way, and people in many other parts of the world do not feel this way. Junior colleges, by offering thorough and well-rounded preparation for many of these occupations, can help to improve their status.

Impact of New Federal Programs

The Federal programs in the fields of education and training, public health, employment opportunity, and other aspects of social welfare enacted since 1961 represent a great new commitment to social progress. The manpower implications of these programs are far-reaching.

In agencies of the Federal Government, the added employment requirements will be small. The role of Federal Government personnel in connection with these new undertakings is, in general, to coordinate, set standards, provide leadership, and perform research and evaluation. Actual operation of the programs will be handled, for the most part, by State and local government agencies, universities, and other nonprofit institutions, and private industry--notably the construction industry.

No attempt will be made, in this brief paper, to convey detailed provisions of these programs. It is obvious, however, that opportunities for meaningful careers in public service will exist on an unprecedented scale. Less obvious, perhaps, is the certain prospect that large numbers of the population who, in the past, were not thought of as "college material," will be in a position to take advantage of some kind of post-high school education. In terms of sheer numbers, therefore, the junior colleges must prepare to undergo a massive expansion. At the same time, they must learn to speak in an understandable way to those disadvantaged and minority-group youngsters who would not ordinarily feel particularly comfortable in a college milieu. It is heartening to note that the junior colleges have already demonstrated a willingness to meet this challenge.

Certain categories of the additional workers who will be needed in the new programs are particularly relevant in a discussion of junior colleges. Teacher aides, counselor aides, and library personnel are examples. Also, competent workers in the large area of communication techniques will be in demand.

Some junior colleges are already participating in the development of new job-oriented programs under the provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Federally assisted training may now cover the entire occupational spectrum, excluding only those jobs which require a baccalaureate or higher degree or which the Commissioner of Education determines to be generally considered professional. Congress has made plain its intention of fostering postsecondary training under the act by requiring that until 1968 at least one-third, and thereafter at least one-fourth, of the funds authorized under the act should be used to construct area vocational schools (which typically provide post-secondary as well as secondary programs) and to provide training for people "who have completed or left high school and are available for full-time study in preparation for entering the labor market." Further aid for junior and community colleges is provided under the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 which reserves 22.5 per cent of the authorized funds for the construction of facilities for such institutions.

Junior colleges can make a still greater contribution to the development of the Nation's manpower as well as play an important role in the war on poverty under amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. The amended Act permits training allowances for periods ranging up to 2 years to aid unemployed or underemployed persons who are taking training in more complex occupations to fit themselves for the job market. Manpower Development and Training programs have already demonstrated that courses for training of electronics and medical-laboratory technicians, as well as other programs for the development of semi-professional workers, can aid in reducing unemployment and upgrading the labor force. A much greater expansion of such programs is now possible, and the implications should be obvious to junior college administrators. Work-study programs for college students under the Economic Opportunity Act will also make it possible for many more financially hard pressed and disadvantaged youngsters to take advantage of the benefits of higher education and these youngsters will also be seeking programs closely attuned to job opportunities.

Staffing Problems for Junior Colleges

Turning now to the manpower requirements of junior colleges themselves, it is important to note that many of the skills and talents which will be in especially heavy demand in the years ahead--because of the new Federal programs, and other programs reflecting the Nation's heightened social awareness, of which the Federal programs are expressions--are the same ones required by the junior colleges. There will be lively competition for the services of teachers, librarians, counselors, psychologists, administrators, and researchers.

The junior colleges, if they are to meet the tremendous opportunities now developing for them, must not only hold their own but must expand sharply. To do this, they will have to maximize the inherent advantages they are able to offer their staff, particularly in relation to four-year colleges. For example, proximity to important population centers, informal atmosphere, and flexibility can be emphasized, even if financial rewards cannot be directly competitive with alternative opportunities. At the same time, however, it seems clear that junior colleges will have to display imagination in develpping unconventional approaches to their manpower problems.

Leadership for Tomorrow

We have considered in some detail the meaning of technological change to junior colleges, from the standpoint of manpower requirements. One of the basic consequences of our modern technology is an increased need for creative and knowledgeable persons to direct the many new capacities we have developed. Just as the automobile extended our capacity for physical movement, the new generation of computers has extended our capacity for thought. Realization of this potentiality to its fullest extent will depend on the degree to which we are able to develop able leaders.

One very promising source of this leadership is the vast reservoir of "ordinary" youngsters. As Goodwin Watson (1962) has observed:

> In the current flurry of concern over the "gifted," most well-to-do families are pleased to think of their own children as being given well-deserved special consideration. Teachers are gratified because "higher standards" are in vogue. Yet the great reservoir of undiscovered and undeveloped intellectual talent in America is not in upper-class or middle-class neighborhoods. While the proportion of high I.Q.'s may be lower in underprivileged areas--this is a slippery question, as Professor Riessman demonstrates--the actual numbers of intellectually very bright children in poor homes are far in excess of those to be found in the relatively few homes of business and professional leaders.
>
> What is needed now is some fresh approach to the discovery and cultivation of the talents that undoubtedly exist among millions of children from unpromising backgrounds. The usual tests won't identify these able pupils; the usual curriculum won't challenge them; the usual teachers won't inspire them. While additional research would be helpful, the more urgent need seems to be for creative teaching on the basis of a different set of assumptions (p. x).

It is here that the junior colleges have a particularly exciting opportunity. With no hampering tradition of formal doctrine, they can enter whole-heartedly into experimental and innovative ventures aimed toward the development of the real potentialities of the less academically oriented youngster, and particularly the culturally disadvantaged.

The Junior Colleges as a Democratic Force

As we improve our ability to control nature, it appears that the line between work and non-work is beginning to blur. With increased leisure and earlier retirement comes a search for meaningful supplemental activity. This is seen in the booming growth of participation in community organizations, as well as in increased travel and unpaid volunteer activities. We have always conceded, in a rather abstract way, that education must be a preparation for living, but now we must recognize an urgent demand for conveying to students a real appreciation of the tremendous possibilities and needs of the world around them. In this connection, the junior colleges have been doing an important job in providing cultural enrichment for many of America's youngsters.

As our capacity to cope with natural forces improves through technological advances, so does our latitude increase for making decisions about where we are going to invest the time and effort we have saved. According to a McGraw-Hill Book Company survey made last year, manufacturers expect 15 per cent of their 1967 sales to be from products that weren't made in 1963--the highest percentage of anticipated new products since the start of the surveys in 1956. The direction in which we move--whether that 15 per cent is going to consist of electric back-scratchers or of something more deeply satisfying--is a basic one, and one in which the junior colleges will share a great responsibility.

The facts are in on the past and present manpower trends; to the best of our knowledge the need for technicians and other occupations requiring less than a four-year degree will expand in the future. The challenge is now before the junior colleges. Will they seize the opportunity now available to them to develop the imaginative curriculums that are needed to prepare workers for jobs in a changing and growing economy? We in the Labor Department are prepared to offer assistance in meeting this challenge. But the response to the challenge lies mainly with the educational community.

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COMMITMENT AND TENTATIVENESS DURING CAREER DEVELOPMENT AT THE LOWER LEVELS OF HIGHER EDUCATION[1]

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The Need for Individuality in the Face of Quantity

The junior college occupies strategic position in the forthcoming upgrading of the general level of education of American citizens. Tertiary education for all citizens of the United States will follow as night the day provided that we avoid catastrophe. Although money for the expansion of junior colleges will undoubtedly continue to be as hard to obtain as always, the junior college as the lower level of this impending higher education for all faces only a seeming challenge in expansion to meet demand. The juggernaut of quantity in demand will inevitably force the opening of more and more junior colleges.

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[1] Harvard Studies in Career Development, No. 36 (Revised). This research was supported in part by the Center for Research in Careers under Grant No. MH 07308-03 from the National Institute of Mental Health.

[2] My interest in the conception of "level" in relation to junior college education is due to Professor Anne Roe who had intended to provide this paper. I substituted for her during her absence because of illness. However, it has proven impossible for Roe to use me as amanuensis. I am therefore solely responsible for this paper but gratefully acknowledge Roe's suggestion and discussion of the topic as well as her editing of a draft. I am also indebted to my colleagues, Gordon Dudley, Wallace Fletcher, and David Moment, who have taught me the meaning of entrepreneurial behavior, the concept which I adopt here in relation to the enterprise of person in time.

The trick in future expansion will be merely that of guidance, not of creation of market. However, access to this lower level of higher education is, and will continue to be, linked to social and economic circumstances of families desiring higher education for their children. Therefore, the creation of public respect through the maintenance of individual regard in each student will become the actual challenge to the junior college during its time of critical expansion. The junior college must earn its right to exist by further encouraging the emergence of human dignity even when education is linked as closely to the upgrading of family social position as is the case with the present, and probable future, clientele of the junior college. But human dignity is maintained through the acceptance (1) of obligation to choose in education and work, and (2) of the consequences of one's elected alternatives, while (3) trying to keep open one's access to additional resources in society through anticipation of later choices. Realization of the dual obligation of the junior college student to choose and to accept must bring the concepts of commitment and tentativeness into sharp focus for us as we reflect upon the likely destiny of the junior college during the forthcoming decade.

My colleagues underscore the probable imminent expansion of junior colleges throughout this volume. Therefore, my purpose shall merely be to bring into relief for us the importance of the cultivation of commitment to current employment. The swing point in my rhetoric is the conception of occupational inheritance, the passing of social position from parents to children by way of education and employment. Is occupational inheritance merely mechanical or also personal? Fundamental to personal involvement in occupational inheritance is the relation of the concept of level in education to that of level in occupation. Contrary to common assumption in the sociology of status, I shall argue that these two conceptions have no necessary connection although they occur together with considerable frequency. The only time that the connection of frequency becomes that of necessity is when people negate their right and obligation in the United States to choose education and work. The right and obligation to choose education and work requires (1) a rhetoric of that right and obligation in relation to career development, and (2) an organization of education which facilitates acceptance of this right and obligation.

My three conceptions (1) personal responsibility in the connection of level in education and work, (2) choice and responsibility in career development, and (3) organization for commitment and tentativeness in the lower level of higher education provide the rhetoric of this paper. However, I shall reverse consideration (1) of personal responsibility in the connection of level in education and work and (2) of choice and responsibility in career development because I need the latter to argue the former. Therefore, I organize this paper to consider: (1) choice in occupation; (2) levels in education; (3) levels in occupation; (4) occupational inheritance; (5) organization of education for the cultivation of commitment and tentativeness in the lower level of higher education.

Choice in Occupation: Key to the Personally-Determined Career

The Procedure of Choice. Man only gradually becomes entrepreneurial toward the investment and management of his time in activity. In order to be entrepreneurial about time investment, man must become aware of his capacity to act as an agent in the allocation of his time to activity. He must become aware that he risks time in order to obtain what he desires more regularly and reliably. He must become aware that many of the results desired from collaborative behavior occur in his interaction with significant others and that certain demands must be fulfilled if he is to earn the status he desires another to accord him. Structurally, then, man must become aware that the attainment of (1) a goal (2) requires the formulation of a plan for action designed to reach the goal, (3) the creation of a system for information accumulation and processing in order continuously to evaluate progress toward the goal, and (4) frequent review of the condition of progress in order that (1) goal, (2) plan, and/or (3) feedback system may be revised as is considered necessary. The outcome can never be guaranteed in the use of such a system of application of thought in relation to action. The outcome can only become more likely as the person becomes more interested and capable in his application of the principles.

Man can apply himself as an agent of his action in many contexts. For instance, man can apply himself to the mastery of the message of another. Man can apply himself to occupation as we have traditionally hoped that he will when reared in Western culture. Man can apply himself to his interpersonal relationships as we also hope he will when uniting the role of parent with his necessary role as member of a family.

Process in Occupational Choice. The context of choice in time occupancy which is of prime relevance to us is that of occupation. In the choice of occupation, the person can move toward what might become increasing satisfaction from the conduct of his work. The movement takes place over a number of years, however. The years in school are all preparatory to the assumption of work activity unless work is undertaken in summer, holidays, and after school on a part-time basis. And yet a number of modifications in the bases of occupational choice occur during the school period.

The early condition of occupational choice is that of understanding that one becomes. I have never seen this observation reproduced but I have remained fascinated by several interviews which Carol Levine, a former student of mine, recorded with three and one-half year old children. When those children were asked what they wanted to be when they grew up, two of the three children named an animal. It had not occurred to me before hearing these interviews that early manifestations of becoming may well be as the assumption of the form of another. There is probably no early realization that one becomes by doing for one's self, the realization basic to the conception of a career which is personally determined.

Upon entry into elementary school, the object of occupational choice is largely mimicry of the occupations of parents. Boys want to be like their fathers; girls like their mothers. (O'Hara, 1959; Tyler, 1951). Significant others such as relatives seem to figure in the explanation of occupational choice throughout the period of the elementary school (O'Hara, 1959).

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) report that the primary basis for occupational choice changes from that of fantasy to that of tentativeness during the secondary school years including those of the junior high school. The tentative basis is further differentiated through subordination of capacity, interest, and values to occupational choice in that order according to these investigators. Such may well be the case for stipulated bases for occupational choice, the actual data obtained by Ginzberg, _et al_. O'Hara and I (O'Hara & Tiedeman, 1959) have found, however, that the understanding of adolescents concerning these factors in occupational choice seem to mature in a different order. We found that values are quite well understood throughout the secondary school period, and that the understanding of values improves slightly in the early years and remains uniformly high. What surprised us is that the understanding of aptitudes of relevance to the choice of occupation are not well understood either at entry or departure from secondary school even though the understanding does improve during the period. Furthermore, social class is a concept not well understood during the period and does not improve either. This observation is of particular impact in the junior college as I shall show later. The junior college participates in vocational development where the occupations of children are linked with occupations of parents. In the absence of comprehension of personal capacity, defensiveness can emerge towards one's level of education. Education "does for one" rather than "frees one."

During the secondary school years, the adolescent is still necessarily in a period of anticipation concerning his occupation. However, he is experiencing accommodation to the realization of his original intentions concerning education. If there is no change in intention during the accommodation, the accommodation takes the form, first of uncertainty experienced during induction, secondly, of possible reformation following upon generation of confidence in one's capacity to do what is wanted by teachers, and lastly, of possible integration following upon realization of the need for tentativeness as well as commitment in goal pursuit. Although commitment is always necessary for full functioning, during adolescence tentativeness must exist towards the regard which peers and superiors hold for one. The high school student who proves unable to realize the goal desired from study must engage in revising his goals and his estimates of his capacity to make others act as he desires them to act if he is to realize his goals. In general, the self estimates which emerge from the process of occupational choice by the conclusion of secondary school are still only in a stage of anticipation with regard to occupation but have passed through an initial stage of accommodation with regard to prerequisite education.

O'Hara and I have elsewhere (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963) tried to make explicit the above conceptions of steps in relation to the stages of anticipation and accommodation in the process of occupational choice. Those general conceptions of the process of occupational choice can perhaps here be made sufficiently clear by means of an illustration framed in terms of a stage in the process of occupational choice beyond the choice of curriculum in secondary school. For instance, consider a freshman in a junior college. Let us further suppose that he is considering becoming a physician.

Our freshman has already experienced two aspects of choice involved in becoming a physician. He has elected and pursued a curriculum in secondary school which qualified him for admission to the junior college he now attends. Furthermore, he elected and entered the junior college where we are not imagining him to be. In both cases he has had to bring his wish for occupation into relation with those of teachers and administrators who hold him accountable as he pursues his desires. Both of these experiences involve accommodation. If the self of the student has been vitalized in these accommodations, the accommodations are more than mere adjustments; they are opportunities to experience power in relationship with others as desire guides action. Since the secondary school experience precedes that of entry into junior college, the former is older and possibly even geographically distant. If the freshman has come out as master of both the requirements of his high school and of his desire to win the regard of his superiors there, he is now likely to be in the integration step of development (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963) with regard to his accommodation to choice of high school curriculum. However, since entry into junior college is still new for our freshman, his accommodation to those circumstances in which he strives for self esteem and recognition at the junior college are likely still to be in the conditions either of induction (clear responsiveness to the demands of his authorities) or of reformation (for instance, more reproductive assimilation of the authority roles available at the college).

Our embryo physician while at junior college is not just involved with the task of commitment to the junior college during the process of accommodation to its expectations. The freshman is also involved with the task of tentativeness as this condition is experienced in the process of anticipation of medical choices yet standing ahead of him. The choices standing before him are (1) studies qualifying for entry into medical school, (2) transfer to a four-year college, (3) medical school, (4) specialization in medicine, and (5) place in which he will practice medicine. Our freshman physician can consider the possibilities and requirements of these choices in any combination and sequence. The demand for commitment which is structurally linked to a sequence of preparation ordinarily means that the preparatory-like sequence tends to dominate the time-extended consideration of self-in-situation which gives rise to the condition of tentativeness. Hence it is likely that specialized studies in preparation for medical school are already chosen by our freshman and that his choice is in a condition of clarification with regard to that aspect of career development. Furthermore, the freshman might have explored four-year colleges and their availability for transfer from his present institution. If so, he is likely presently to be in a step of choice with regard to that particular aspect of career development. If our freshman is indeed farsighted, he may already have somewhat explored several medical schools and be in a condition of crystallization with regard to the concepts in need of organization for resolution of choice of medical school. Finally, our junior college freshman may even be exploring with regard to a place in which he would like to practice medicine.

Occupation: External Manifestation of Choosing. The occupation of a working person is known. This occupation constitutes the present external manifestation of his process of occupational choice. A present occupation need be neither a satisfying nor a permanent manifestation of the development of occupational choice. However, a present occupation is a momentarily definite characterization of the work activities of the person.

The occupational psychologist is interested in two primary aspects of a person's occupation, its kind, and its level. The kind of work a person engages in presumably expresses interests the person has in devoting his activity to the creation of products which satisfy the needs of others and thus lead to the exchange of money for directed activity. The level of work a person engages in generally represents the responsibility for independent decisions of a work nature which the person enjoys. Kind and level of work therefore constitute both the direction of personal investment of activity and the regard which the person enjoys from others with respect to his capacity in the chosen activity.

There are numerous classifications of occupations in use. A classification of rather widespread present use is Roe's classification of occupations (Roe, 1956, p. 151). I single out this classification because I particularly want to make reference to the concept of level in occupation which Roe uses. This concept gives me means to indicate the level at which the junior college curriculum presumably gears into the occupational structure in the United States. This gearing is complex; it is not one to one. In fact, this gearing is more due to custom than to necessity. A consideration of level in education in relation to that of level in occupation may now make this point somewhat clearer.

Decisions of Principle Underlying Organization for Education in Junior College

Levels in Education and Levels in Knowledge. Schooling could be arranged so that it extended throughout life; there is always something which is becoming known. Schooling throughout life is probably even desirable; an informed condition is probably better than an uninformed condition. Despite the possibility and desirability of continuous schooling, we currently arrange formal schooling so that it starts during the third to fifth year of life and continues until the person is satisfied that he can manage the demands of work and life which he then sees before him. However, we do not consider a person mature enough to be permitted this judgment until he is at least sixteen years of age. During this period of schooling, the person is expected to make himself competent in a variety of subjects, each being studied throughout a period ordinarily stretching over several years.

We presently offer the frame of education to people in segments, e.g. preschool, elementary school, secondary school, and tertiary schools. Each of such segments, or "levels of education" as they are more customarily designated, has reason for being. For instance, the preschool socializes children, extends their spoken vocabulary, and sensitizes them to form and sound in order to prepare for the representation of ideas and experience in works, numbers, pictures, and music.

The elementary school introduces representations of ideas and experiences in words, numbers, pictures, and music and tutors the child in the receipt and construction of messages inherent in such representations. In the course of such instruction, the elementary school begins the differentiation of subjects into language and mathematics, and by the intermediate years further differentiates word and number fundamentals into the subjects of social studies and science.

The secondary school introduces personal determination into the educational structure by requiring choice among alternatives more numerous than requirements for graduation. A basic aspect of this choice is whether the experience of the secondary school is conceived as a step to higher education or as preparation for induction into work without further education prior to work. This latter possibility leads to the introduction of skill construction activity into the secondary school and to the realization of doing as a mode of activity valued by adults. Curricular differentiation along the line to tertiary education is largely in terms of (a) a different language, and (b) more complex forms of reasoning about ideas, things, and people, such reasoning being largely in only English. Curricular differentiation in relation to immediate employment on the other hand is largely in terms of (a) the immediate use of common schooling, and (b) the construction of a skill valued in the local environs. These latter capabilities are generated in order to transform the person from student into citizen-worker upon graduation.

Tertiary schools receive the graduates of secondary schools and in turn present those graduates with the necessity (a) of further specializing their understanding of ideas, things, and/or people by concentrating their studies in the course of their four years, and (b) of choosing to progress into graduate study without further employment upon graduation.

It is apparent then that expanding differentiation within segments of education defines the conception of level in education. A person with a secondary education is presumed to have a higher level of education than a person with an elementary education. Similarly, a tertiary education is presumed to be higher than a secondary education, junior college being conceived as a lower level of this tertiary or so-called higher education. However, there are varied patterns of understanding of conceptions of ideas, things, and/or persons which either are required and/or exist in the understanding of students at the several levels. For instance, it is possible for a secondary school student to be at a higher level of understanding of a particular language than a college student might be. The concept of level ordinarily has little common meaning except that of level in understanding of English and mathematics with some possibility that it also refers to some progress in comprehension of the social and natural sciences. Art and music are ordinarily not reckoned carefully in invoking the conception of level in education.

The Structure of Education in Junior College: The Origination of Level in Occupational Choice

The junior college is technically at the lower level of higher education in the general framework of level in education which has just been outlined. The junior college offers its students the pattern of choice characteristic of secondary and higher education in general, namely:

(a) to further differentiate understanding of ideas, things, and/or persons, and

(b) to elect to progress beyond such differentiation provided in the two-year sequence of the junior college immediately, or not.

An a-type choice is offered to students through the several programs which the junior college organizes into its requirements for graduation. Each of these programs is likely to require courses of a so-called general nature and those which are specific to the program elected by the student. Should such specific courses qualify for work immediately upon graduation, they are frequently considered to be vocational or technical courses. General studies are ordinarily conceived to be relatively independent both from other general aspects of the curriculum of the institution and from specific and/or vocational courses. Despite this intention of institution and professor for a general course, students in a general course who have then brought their vocational choice into an aspect of crystallization are not likely to attribute this degree of relative independence to the knowledge they are then assimilating. Such students are likely to expect that a general course contributes to the development of intentions in the terms into which they have formed them.

The b-type choice of those noted above ordinarily distinguishes students who plan to complete a four-year collegiate education immediately from those who intend to seek work directly upon leaving the junior college. The first group of students are considered to be transfer students; the second, terminal students.

The junior college caters both to high school graduates who have engaged in either vocational or so-called academic study in secondary school and to adults with a variety of prior study and work. It is this fact that adults are now returning to junior college in greater number both for further general and vocational education which belies the validity of the conception of "terminal" in relation to the structure of the curriculum of the junior college. The curriculum of the junior college now spans a spectrum which may well include material ordinarily presented in both secondary school and college (Gleazer, 1963). The ever-enlarging client system of the junior college will mean that this spectrum will further broaden and that it may well move into courses now considered specific to the graduate school. For instance, statistics ordinarily required in the graduate preparation of psychologists or teachers is now a part of the junior college curriculum in computer programming. Furthermore, some courses in political science once reserved for graduate students are now available in adult education aspects of the junior college curriculum. However, the graduate level curriculum available in junior colleges is not very varied or deep at the present time.

The location of the junior college in the general structure of education obligates its faculty to induct students either into the more general collegiate structure of education or into the more specific structure of occupation as manifested in the local community. We seem to have considerable understanding of the curriculum as both conceived in the general structure of knowledge and provided for students who progress regularly from level to level without that structure. In addition we have a literature of teaching and counseling as practiced in secondary school and college. However, we have not seemed to understand that education for vocation as offered in secondary school and college adds a new dimension to the curriculum, to teaching, and to counseling, namely, the necessity for making vocational education a truly liberalizing experience. I develop this argument elsewhere (Tiedeman, 1965) and do not repeat it here however critical it is for my general argument that commitment and tentativeness must be a part of the goal of education in junior colleges.

The Client System of Education in Junior College

Levels in Occupation. The previous section portrayed the general conception of level as it evolves within a system of knowledge, educational organization, and personal choice. Although there are several general lines of differentiation in accomplishment which evolve, there is great ambiguity in the kinds of differentiation associated with advance in the level of education. The specific differentiation fostered in the organization of the junior college is that contained in the areas of knowledge and of craft offered in the curriculum and procedure of the college. This differentiation has the specific characteristics which Gleazer (1963) reports in detail for each junior college.

The ambiguity inherent in the conception of level in education is compounded when applied to occupation by the fact that the concept in such applications spans not just training but also the level of skill and/or the degree of autonomy presumably involved in the occupation. Furthermore, the concept usually refers to the occupation in its generality, not in its specificity as inherent in the job or position of the person who so occupies his time.

The progenitors of the conception of level in occupation are the classifications of occupations by the U. S. Employment Service and the U. S. Census Bureau. These classifications have much in common but are still not identical. Roe's concept of level somewhat modifies this more standard classification and collapses the essentially seven-level scale of the U. S. Employment Service into the following six-level scale:

1. Professional and managerial (independent responsibility)
2. Professional and managerial (autonomy but with less significant responsibility than in level 1)
3. Semi-professional and small business

4. Skilled
5. Semi-skilled
6. Unskilled

Roe's level 1 essentially refers to occupations which require doctoral education when appropriate, while her level 2 refers to occupations requiring a level of education at or above the bachelor's degree but not at the doctoral level. Roe's level 3 refers to an educational level of high school with the addition of technical education. Levels 4, 5, and 6 of the Roe classification are essentially similar respectively to the last three occupational levels of the U. S. Employment Service Classification. Level 4 refers to occupations requiring an apprenticeship or its equivalent. Levels 5 and 6 refer to occupations requiring respectively relatively less, and practically no, training and/or experience.

The junior college, the lower level of higher education, primarily prepares its graduates, if then vocationally inclined, for entry into occupations at levels 3 and 4 in Roe's classification. Performance at this level of autonomy and/or skill is manifested throughout the entire spectrum of occupations in the United States. Therefore, the curriculum of the junior college has no necessary limit on its variety by virtue of that institution's intended specific capability for preparation in middle-level occupations. Students with special interest in middle-level jobs of Roe's classes of (1) service, (2) business contact,

(3) organization, (4) technology, (5) outdoor, (6) science, (7) general cultural, and (8) arts and entertainment are all likely to expect offerings from the junior college. A junior college which caters to variety in individual interest over the above spectrum is not likely to suffer public torment at limiting its preparation to occupational levels 3 and 4 in the Roe classification.

Occupational Inheritance. The United States tries to insure that the choice of occupation is an individual matter. Nevertheless, the choice occurs within a union of family and institutional circumstances which has made the dependence of the occupations of sons upon the occupations of their fathers rather marked, particularly in terms of occupational level.

Jenson and Kirchner (1955) reported that as many as 69 per cent of fathers and sons had jobs of the same level when the study was undertaken in 1951. This correspondence refers to the most basic of occupational distinctions, that between manual and non-manual workers. Although manual and non-manual work are slightly intermingled in Roe's occupational levels when occupations are distributed by group as well as level, the basic distinction of the Jenson and Kirchner study is that between levels 3 and 4 in the Roe classification. This then is the critical point for the reputation of the junior college in the face of large demand for service.

The consistency of occupational level within American families when our society is supposedly open has prompted numerous inquiries. Gross (1964) indicates some of the types of investigations of this relationship which have been made. According to him, occupational inheritance endures over several generations even though there has been a slight generational gain in the level of occupation followed by the younger generation.

Shea (1963) uncovers facts of considerable importance for individual responsibility in educational choice during social inheritance. Shea demonstrates that the election of college is not generally opposed by the parents of boys of above average scholastic ability but that the intentions of boys of such ability are strongly dependent upon the family's encouragement of college attendance and by the family's expectation that enough money will be available to make college attendance possible. Thus responsibility for social inheritance in this country rests directly in the family. Unless the family projects the certainty that its Johnny and Suzy can and will graduate from college, neither Johnny nor Suzy are likely to assume and surmount the difficulties inherent in graduating from college. The availability of more junior colleges in the future is bound to loosen this restraint. As the restraint of economics loosens, it will then become necessary to insure student responsibility for choice. Otherwise, blame may well be levied upon the junior college for not "making" Johnny and Suzy go "far enough."

Vocational Development. I have already (1) laid out the general lines of the process of occupational choice prior to junior college, (2) illustrated that process in the potential career development of a medical student who is a freshman in junior college, and (3) delineated the two aspects of educational choice of vocational relevance which are experienced in junior college. In this sketch of the clientele of the junior college, I merely provide a slightly more detailed description of the general condition of vocational development which characterizes the junior college student. This delineation is intended as background for the final transition to direct consideration of the problem of cultivating commitment and tentativeness through the organization of personnel and responsibilities in the junior college.

The junior college organizes for its students, young and old, three discontinuities (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963) of vocational relevance. The first discontinuity is that of experiencing the junior college program itself. The entry of the student into the junior college immediately requires that the choice of junior college by the student enter into the aspect of implementation or adjustment. This part of vocational choice then enters upon the step of induction. Hopefully, the choice in relation to the particular junior college then passes through steps of reformation and integration before or after graduation. These latter steps are aided by the student's encounter, in anticipation while being inducted into the junior college, with the necessity for two later choices, (1) subject concentration or vocational program within the junior college, and (2) transfer college or job following upon graduation.

By the end of at least the first year in the junior college, the student must have elected an area of concentration or a program of vocational study for his second year in the junior college. The student's progress into the second year brings his choice of study and/or work into this second major discontinuity provided in the junior college. If the election is to vocational training, the vocational program forces the student's choice of apprenticeship in a given craft into the aspect of implementation or adjustment. The program constitutes demand or reality for this part of the student's vocational development. Does the student's career plan stand up and become elaborated further or does it enter upon reformulation?

O'Hara and I expect the student to progress through steps of induction, reformation, and integration with regard to the apprenticeship of an elected craft if the junior college program for craft preparation proves successful (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963). The supervisors of students attempt to cultivate these steps. In the first or induction step, the student must be encouraged. During reformation, the student will carry his own interest but challenge the supervisor by being more like the supervisor than the supervisor may care to have him be. When integration is achieved, the student is more in command of his own impulses in pursuit of the objectives of his craft and has more freedom to do better at his craft while having excess energy to devote to next or other aspects of choice in life. Moment (1965) has stated the case in a similar way in an analysis of the problem of participating in business organizations. Supervisors should strive to help a student achieve, before graduation, this degree of comprehension of living [illegible] tion but with responsibility to others

The third vocational discontinuity for the student in the junior college represents the landing of a job or the transfer to a four-year college upon graduation. The vocational or study specialization program forces the student into the aspect of anticipation or preoccupation with regard to the job or transfer discontinuity of vocational development. I expect that the choice of job or later college will progress through steps of exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification during the program of vocational study in junior college (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963).

Organization for Guidance-in-Junior-College-Education

Freedom and Responsibility during Occupational Inheritance. Although the occupations of fathers and sons may in fact frequently be linked, parents are not responsible for the condition unless the youth abrogates responsibility for educational and occupational choice. I have indicated in my analysis of level in education that the secondary school requires choice of educational level as well as of mode of expression of collaborative activity (Roe's groups). The junior college offers a similar tradition to its students. However, it is quite possible because of the economic linkage of the education of children and the education of parents that the junior college serves a clientele from families at levels 3 and 4 of Roe's classification. Therefore, it is philosophically imperative for the junior college to set responsibility for educational and occupational choice firmly with each of its students. Otherwise, students may well either consider themselves victims of "the system" or not truly confront the joy of choosing itself. Furthermore, it is imperative that the graduate be committed; otherwise he will fail in his immediate work. But the graduate must also be tentative; otherwise his talent will quickly be by-passed in today's changing technology, the major context for vocational education in junior college.

Individuality with Commitment and Tentativeness. Adequate functioning ordinarily requires that a person be committed (Allport, 1965) to the enterprise to which he lends his effort. Otherwise the person does not give the enterprise benefit of his tacit understanding (Polanyi, 1959) of its operation. Enterprises which operate upon only the explicit understanding of its employees generally deteriorate.

Middle-level occupations imply by definition that the person is not autonomous in all regards with respect to his occupation. In other words, the person in a middle-level occupation necessarily subordinates some of his actions to the explicit definitions which place his job "in the middle." Ordinarily, there is considerable room for operation on tacit knowledge even within the explicit limitations of the middle-level occupation. Persons who build their individuality on operation from personal knowledge within the limitation of middle-level occupation must recognize the nature of their compromise. If individuality is to be cultivated more outside the realm of occupational behavior, middle-level occupation may well provide the only occupational outlet necessary. However, if individuality is to be cultivated primarily in the realm of occupational behavior, middle-level occupation may well provide only the temporary outlet necessary. In either case it is decidedly necessary for the student personnel worker to portray the tentativeness (Allport, 1965) with which the individual should commit himself to activity, occupational or otherwise, for which he is then qualifying himself. For the occupationally ambitious, the envisioning of a ladder of occupation and education are going to be in order as the person earns the money and status which will be needed for personal advancement from the explicit limitations of his originally middle-level occupation. Ordinarily, the person finds that the limitations remain; he now sets them rather than experiences them.

I cannot adequately stress the importance which junior colleges must attach to the dual problem of commitment and tentativeness in the students they seek to educate. Remember that our embryo physician of a previous section had to be committed to college as a freshman. Persons who are not committed to the tasks in which they are then engaged are without adequate motivation for participation in the organization in which they are then a member. Persons without commitment to their studies or work are frequently released by the organization in which they participate. However, while committed to his college, even our college freshman is tentative with regard to the steps in the evolution of participation in medicine which follow upon his study at junior college. Furthermore, he must remain tentative about each of those later steps during each of his accommodations to a then necessary step. This tentativeness provides advantage for students because they are then not committed until they must become definite in order to take the next in a sequence of later steps. On the other hand, persons without tentativeness with regard to steps in life not yet experienced frequently find themselves unprepared for the circumstances then viable in later situations when it is time for them to be a part of those situations.

The changing scene with regard to technological employment imperatively demands that a person remain tentative about a life-time career as he studies in junior college. What a student prepares himself to do upon graduation from junior college is not likely to be a life-time career for him. Practically none of us in the future are going to retire from the same kind of work we undertook when we graduated from college. Therefore, the junior college just must help its students both to commit themselves to the demands of the endeavor they enter upon graduation as well as to develop an attitude of contingency (and of second and third insurance possibilities) towards longevity of the entered activity.

Commitment and Tentativeness during Career Development at the Lower Level of Higher Education

I have noted that the junior college is a part of the apparatus by which social inheritance occurs in this country. Social inheritance involves the transfer of social position from parent to offspring. As has been shown, the junior college necessarily places itself at the "middle level" of education and job status. This is a vulnerable location in social inheritance; it is so easy for those discontent with the results of their aspirations to blame the junior college for a position less than that desired. Under duress from such blame the junior college might consider itself justified in relaxing expectations that responsible accomplishment eventually result from the application of intelligence in the cause of striving. Although I have no wish to advocate harsh standards for their sake, I do note that unnecessary relaxation of standards in the face of blame is generally not a solution for either the disappointed aspirant or the institution subject to his displeasure.

The junior college must demand competence in elected pursuits from its students in order to help them realize and accomplish what they must do which they cannot do if they are to earn a desired status. As students assimilate these demands, they become committed to the goals of those they admire in the course of their study. Such commitments give the student opportunity to undertake work at the level for which the junior college prepares, namely "middle-level" work. Such commitments ordinarily mean that the social position of the offspring in probability remains at the level of the parent, namely "middle-level." There is nothing inherently bad in such circumstance unless the student of the junior college later comes to resent the fact that he has not "risen." The insurance against such possibility is the development of an attitude of tentativeness in association with the attitude of commitment which is necessary for immediate action including that of entering upon work following graduation.

The development of an attitude of tentativeness in association with an attitude of commitment requires service to students which both inducts them into requirements and encourages them to understand (1) that they must choose, and (2) why they have chosen as they did. Organization for such service requires a counselor in complement, not supplement, to a professor. That organization of responsibility and authority provides for the needed guidance-in-junior-college-education (Tiedeman, 1964). All efforts are thereby bent to placing responsibility for choice of education and occupation fully upon the shoulders of each student. The outcome should be the commitment and tentativeness which are both so necessary if young people are to occupy themselves satisfactorily and satisfyingly and to recognize that the level of their occupation is of their doing, not along of the doing of others, particularly of their parents.

It is urgent that the junior college achieve both commitment and tentativeness in its graduates. Otherwise the junior college will not serve the goal of freedom in society which we hope each person will achieve in the United States. The challenge to student personnel services in junior college is clear. If we fail in liberating through education at the junior college, we fail a major portion of our citizenry. Furthermore, if we fail having at last organized the junior college to encourage individuality through commitment and tentativeness by means of both adequate anticipatory education (Tiedeman, 1965) and adequate socialization during education (Tiedeman, 1965), then student personnel workers have muffed the opportunity of our generation.

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PART III

THE STUDENT AND THE STRUCTURE

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT

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In attempting to present a brief global, yet current, picture of the junior college student, use will be made of a limited number of sources of research data. The basic source of findings to be cited is a recent study of college attendance by Medsker and Trent (1965) at the Center for the Study of Higher Education. The research involved some 10,000 high school graduates in a sample of 16 communities in nine states. Other sources used include studies of a cross-section of Florida junior college students (Florida State Department of Education, 1962), California junior college students who ranked in the top 15 per cent of their high school classes (Tillery, 1964), junior college students in California with low academic ability scores (Berg, 1965), a sample of two- and four-year college students in New York State (New York State Department of Education, 1965),[1] a nation-wide study of junior college students who transferred to four-year colleges (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b), and participants in a national study of high school students 8 per cent of whom subsequently attended junior colleges (Flanagan, Davis, Dailey, Shaycroft, Orr, Goldberg, & Neyman, 1964).

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[1] The Bureau of Research in Higher and Professional Education, New York State Department of Education, made available to the author preliminary data from the study Comparison Between Students From Two- and Four-Year Colleges, Cooperative Research Project No. 1944. The report of this study is expected in 1967, and in the meantime inquiries may be addressed to the Bureau.

Generalizations About Student Characteristics

There are now well over one million students enrolled in more than 700 two-year colleges in 49 states (American Association of Junior Colleges, 1965). More than 80 per cent of the enrollment is in public junior colleges. Fewer than half the students in the public colleges are enrolled on a full-time basis although nearly three-fourths of the students in the private institutions are carrying 12 or more units per semester. Two-thirds of the full-time students in public junior colleges and 61 per cent of those in private institutions are freshmen. An analysis of size of college shows that half the public institutions had enrollments of more than 800 students in 1963 and more than 10 per cent had enrollments of at least 5,000. On the other hand, the median enrollment in the private institutions was fewer than 300 students, and 22 per cent had fewer than 100 enrollees. Enrollment statistics are obviously impersonal, but they may serve to illustrate a few of the dimensions to be considered in planning student personnel programs.

Student Characteristics Which Are Unchanging

Junior college students bring with them certain family backgrounds and other personal characteristics which condition their interests, values, and motivations, and which are in effect the raw material with which counselors and faculty members must work. These characteristics remain unchanged as the students move through college, but steps may be taken in both counseling and instruction to compensate for or to capitalize upon them. A few such characteristics are age at the time of college entrance, sex, occupation of the father, native ability, and high school preparation.

Sex. A larger proportion of men than women attends college, despite the fact that the high school performance of the women is better than that of the men. Nearly half the men who graduated from high school around 1960 entered some type of college the following year, compared with slightly more than one-third of the women (Flanagan et al., 1964; Medsker & Trent, 1965). About 8 per cent of the high school graduates entered a two-year institution in 1960, or about one new college freshman in five (Flanagan et al., 1964). There is increasing evidence that among the graduates who enter college right after high school, the two-year institutions appear to be attracting about equal percentages of men and women. The percentage of women who transfer to four-year institutions to complete their degree programs is considerably smaller than the percentage of men (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b).

Age of the Junior College Students. Most of the major studies tell little about the age distribution of the students, since they have been concerned solely with recent high school graduates. However the Florida study showed that only about one-half the student body was under 20 years of age, i.e., at about the usual age-grade level, and that an additional 20 per cent was between the ages of 20 and 22. Only 16 per cent of the students were 30 years or older (Florida State Department of Education, 1962). The transfer study (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b) showed that only 8 per cent of the students lagged more than five years behind their classmates who moved through high school and college without a break. However, the transfer men were, on the average, a year older than the women at the time they entered a four-year college. The study did not reveal at what point the year was lost by the male students.

Minority Groups. Little is known about the race and national origins of junior college students although the belief is widely held that young people from minority groups are being served by the junior colleges, e.g., Negroes, the foreign-born, and others with economically and culturally deprived backgrounds who tend to be overlooked by other types of institutions. If this is so, few such students are transferring to four-year colleges (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b).

Family Characteristics. There is remarkably close agreement among the various studies concerning the level of educational attainment of the parents of the junior college students. In each of several studies somewhat more than half the fathers were found to have had at least a high school education, and nearly 30 per cent had some college (Florida State Department of Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b; Medsker & Trent, 1965; New York State Department of Education, 1965). Studies also show that only half the fathers who attended college completed a baccalaureate degree program. At the other extreme, about one-fifth of the parents were reported to have had no more than a grade-school education. Various studies also tended to show that the level of education attained by the mothers of the junior college students was somewhat higher than that of the fathers, and that the parents of the women had a somewhat higher level of educational attainment than the parents of the male students. The educational level attained by the parents of the transfer students was apparently no higher than that found for the gross junior college student body.

Data related to the occupations of the fathers of the junior college students in the various studies (Florida State Department of Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b); Medsker & Trent, 1965; Tillery, 1964; New York State Department of Education, 1965) are not in as close agreement as those concerning level of educational attainment, perhaps because of the use of different schemes for obtaining and classifying occupational information.

In general, the distribution of occupations of the fathers of the junior college students appeared to approximate quite closely the distribution for the fathers of all high school graduates (Medsker & Trent, 1965). However, in California and Florida, where junior colleges are expanding rapidly and where they operate within a definite plan for higher education, the percentages of fathers in the higher occupational groups were somewhat larger, particularly in the professions (Florida State Department of

Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b). An exception which should be noted are the very brightest high school graduates with fathers in the highest occupational categories, who were not found in large numbers in the junior college (Tillery, 1964). The data may suggest that as the reputation of the junior college improves, parents at a rather high socioeconomic level are more inclined to send their children of only average ability to a local two-year institution for their lower division work, even though they could afford to send them away to college.

Reading habits provide one rather crude index of the cultural level of the junior college students. A comparison of a junior college group which was unselected with respect to ability (Medsker & Trent, 1965) and a highly selected group in the top 15 per cent of high school graduates (Tillery, 1964) shows a striking similarity on two measures. About one-fourth of the students in both groups said that they owned more than 25 books, while nearly one-half admitted to owning almost none. Furthermore, between one-fourth and one-third said that they did not find much time to do outside reading while 16 per cent of the "unselected" group and only 11 per cent of the high ability group said that they read "quite a lot." The findings seem to show that in junior college, as in all public colleges and universities, there will be a certain group of students who are avid readers and collectors of books and a much larger group which has little interest or time for outside reading.

Academic Characteristics. Project Talent (Flanagan et al., 1964) offers the most conclusive evidence concerning the academic ability of a nation-wide sample of junior college students in that all students took the same aptitude tests at the same time and under approximately the same testing conditions. The conclusion was drawn by the investigators that the junior college freshmen are very much like high school seniors with respect to the distribution of their academic aptitude. Their mean score is very similar to that of high school seniors and is considerably below the mean for students who entered four-year institutions. However, the junior colleges appear to draw somewhat heavily from the middle range of ability and somewhat less from the upper and lower extremes.

Project Talent places the junior college students slightly lower on the ability scale than did the studies by Darley (1962) and Medsker and Trent (1965). Darley concluded that junior college students were superior to 60 per cent of the high school graduates while Medsker and Trent found that slightly higher percentages of junior college students came from the upper two quintiles of ability than from the lower, although much less so than the distribution found for students in other types of colleges. Florida findings (Florida State Department of Education, 1962) also showed a tendency for students to come from the upper ability quintiles. Half the Florida junior college students came from the top two quintiles and only 8 per cent from the bottom quintile, based on norms developed for a state-wide twelfth-grade testing program.

Furthermore, 74 per cent of the Florida junior college students were eligible to enter the state universities on the basis of their test scores. It is to be noted that the various studies reported in this chapter were done during different years and that this may account for some variability in findings, especially on the ability level of entering students.

The California study of high ability students (Tillery, 1964) showed that 18 per cent of the high school graduates who were eligible to enter the state university entered a two-year college instead. It was estimated that this very high performance group constituted about 5 per cent of the junior college freshmen in 1961. Since only 26 per cent of the university-eligible students registered at one of the several campuses of that institution, the junior colleges appear to have attracted a fair share of very good students.

Ability data obtained in the transfer study (Flanagan et al., 1964) produced considerable evidence that the junior college transfer students had a higher level of ability than the average high school graduate and (probably) than the average entering university freshman (Knoell & Medsker, 1964a). However, an analysis of the ability of graduates from the four-year colleges showed that the transfer students tended to have somewhat less academic aptitude than the native students.

Similar findings (Medsker & Trent, 1965) were obtained with regard to rank in high school class. Four-year colleges draw upwards of three-fourths of their freshmen from the upper two-fifths of the high school graduating class while only slightly more than half the junior college transfer students were in the upper two-fifths of their high school graduating classes, and this percentage is somewhat higher than that found for junior college freshmen in general (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b).

Reasons for Attending Junior College. Except in New York State, high school graduates were found to have chosen the junior college over other types of institutions for reasons of low cost, closeness to home, and opportunity for employment while attending. At least 70 per cent of the students gave one or more of these reasons of convenience, rather than reasons relating to college reputation, climate or atmosphere of the institution, or other factors associated with the educational program (Florida State Department of Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b; Tillery, 1964).

In New York nearly two-thirds of the students chose the junior college because of the specialized programs offered and only one-fourth cited factors of cost and convenience (New York State Department of Education, 1965). The findings seem reasonable because most of the New York students were enrolled in specialized occupational programs, some in colleges outside their home communities and others in local colleges which charged tuition. Few students in the early 1960's attended junior college because they could not be admitted to a four-year college, except in California where the public four-year colleges were all selective at the freshman level. However, this situation will change as state universities become more selective and as the image of the junior college as a partner in higher education is strengthened.

Modifiable Characteristics

Junior college students enter with certain characteristics which might be expected to change over time, whether or not they were enrolled in college. It is assumed, however, that the college experience may either accelerate or impede these changes. Some of these characteristics are related to physical and emotional maturity, acquisition of permanent values, patterning of cultural and recreational activities, development and deepening of vocational interests, and appreciation of good work habits and attitudes toward work. These characteristics tend to condition the quality of work the students will do in junior college and the likelihood of their persistence to the associate degree and beyond. Some change will occur as a result of maturation alone, some as a kind of by-product of education in the junior college, and some as a direct consequence of counseling and instruction.

Educational Planning. Many studies have found that a majority of the junior college freshmen in all ranges of native ability and prior achievement express their intention to transfer to a four-year institution in order to work for a baccalaureate degree. Project Talent (Flanagan et al., 1964) found that over half the junior college students in the lowest ability quartile wanted to work for a baccalaureate degree and that the percentage increased steadily as ability increased, to about three-fourths of the students at the 80th percentile and above. In a California study of lower ability students (Berg, 1965) 53 per cent were enrolled in transfer programs and only 24 per cent in terminal programs; 56 per cent said they expected to go on for a baccalaureate degree and 9 per cent were still undecided. In New York State (Department of Education, 1965) where three-fourths of the junior college students were enrolled in terminal programs, about half expected to continue their education beyond junior college.

Eighty per cent of a cross-section of Florida junior college entering students were found to be planning to finish at least four years of college, including 23 per cent who expected to go on to graduate school (Florida State Department of Education, 1962). However, a follow-up study of full-time freshmen who entered junior college in 1959 found that only 21.5 per cent had transferred after graduation from junior college and 9 per cent had transferred earlier. Since 80 per cent of the students had expressed their intention to transfer, it is obvious that the students made some major changes in their educational planning at some time during junior college. A few students who enter junior college with no plans to transfer decide to do so later, but the number is far smaller than that of declared transfer students who fail to do so (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b).

Differences with respect to long-term educational planning have been found to exist between students entering junior colleges and those entering other types of institutions (Flanagan et al., 1964; Trent & Medsker, 1965). Only 43 per cent of the students who entered a public junior college in contrast to 74 per cent of the students who entered a public university indicated, while still in high school, that college was highly important. Students who entered junior colleges also reported that they discussed college attendance with their parents much less frequently than did those who entered other types of institutions.

Occupational Choice. Junior college students' need for a stable and secure future in the world of work is reflected in their occupational choices and expected job satisfactions (Berg, 1965; Florida State Department of Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b; Medsker & Trent, 1965; Tillery, 1964). Men were attracted in large numbers to programs in business administration and engineering and women tended to choose teaching (except for the terminal group which enrolled in programs of secretarial science and sales). In the college attendance study (Medsker & Trent, 1964) it was found that about 80 per cent of the junior college students aspired to jobs classified as semi-professional or higher, including 20 per cent who expected to enter law, medicine, and other "higher" professions. Junior college students were found to be less likely than their classmates in four-year colleges to select liberal arts and science majors, unless in preparation for teaching in the public schools. Even among the lower ability group studied (Berg, 1965), one-half the students aspired to semi-professional jobs or higher, 21 per cent to "white collar" jobs, and only 7 per cent to "skilled" occupations.

In each study (Berg, 1965; Tillery, 1964) there was a group equal to about 20 per cent who expressed no occupational choice and presumably had still made none when queried. Apparently high ability students are somewhat more likely to make an early choice than low ability students, judging from the percentages of undecided students found in two studies. The fact of having made such a choice does not, of course, obviate the need for occupational counseling in junior college. More than one-third of the transfer students reported that they changed their minds about their chosen occupation at least once while in junior college and fewer than half were "very certain" about their choice in their spring semester after transfer (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b).

Financial Resources for Education. The economic resources of the junior college students are likely to be important determiners both of their persistence through junior college and into four-year institutions, and of the quality of their performance in college and their participation in various phases of college life. These are regarded as "modifiable" characteristics because of the many different plans which could be devised for helping economically handicapped students secure the highest level of education from which they can profit.

An examination of findings concerning family finances and the employment of junior college students suggests some disparity between their educational aspirations and their resources for financing their education beyond junior college. In each study (Berg, 1965; Florida State Department of Education, 1962; Knoell & Medsker, 1964b; Medsker & Trent, 1965; Tillery, 1964) more than half the students were working at least part-time while attending junior college and about one-fourth were working at least 20 hours per week.

Seventy-two per cent of the Florida students (Florida State Department of Education, 1962) said that their employment was unrelated to their major field of interest and nearly two-thirds of the students advised against outside employment while carrying a full college load. The transfer study (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b) showed that two-thirds of the students were earning some of their college expenses and nearly 30 per cent said that they received no help from their parents.

Values and Orientation. All too little is known about the interests, values, and other personality characteristics of the students who enter junior college, or about their relationship to either curriculum and instruction or student personnel services. It appears that many students enter with an attitude of seeking to find out what the junior college can offer them, where their interests and capabilities lie, and how they might make their entrance into the adult world of work. From the college attendance study (Medsker & Trent, 1965) it was concluded that "academic concern" distinguishes best between junior college and university students in that the former group tends to postpone major decisions about college and career, to receive less encouragement from parents and teachers to attend college, and to be less inclined than their university peers to think that college is "extremely important" to them. About 40 per cent of the junior college students were found to have preferred to enter another type of college as freshmen (Knoell & Medsker, 1964b; Medsker & Trent, 1965; Tillery, 1964; New York State Department of Education, 1965) but were probably kept from doing so by financial factors and/or late decisions about college.

Five scales of the Omnibus Personality Inventory were administered to high school seniors in the college attendance study (Medsker & Trent, 1965). Analysis of scores for graduates who entered different types of two-year and four-year colleges showed that, with one exception, there were no significant differences for either men or women between graduates who entered junior colleges and those who entered public four-year colleges. On the other hand significant differences were found, again with one exception, between graduates who entered junior colleges, and those who entered public universities, the latter group ranking having more desirable scores on all scales. Two studies of subgroups of junior college students suggest that they may have certain distinguishing characteristics which have implications for both counseling and instruction. The California study of high ability students (Tillery, 1964) showed that junior college entrants had significantly lower scores than their university peers on a "social maturity" measure and that junior college women also had significantly lower scores on a measure of "intellectual disposition." Junior college men and women differed most from their university peers on a scale measuring autonomy, i.e., junior college students were more conventional and less independent than students of comparable ability who entered the university as freshmen. Junior college students were also more authoritarian and the junior college women earned lower scores on scales measuring Thinking Introversion, Theoretical Orientation, Estheticism, and Complexity.

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule was administered (New York State Department of Education, 1965) to a sample of New York State students in terminal-occupational programs, with the following results: junior college scores tended to be lower than those of a four-year college norm group on measures of Achievement, Autonomy, Affiliation, Intraception, Dominance, and Heterosexuality, and higher on measures of Deference, Order, Abasement, Endurance, and Aggression.

Instructional Needs. Information is needed about the levels of skills and knowledge which high school graduates bring to junior college in order both to plan instruction and counseling programs and to evaluate outcomes. There is general agreement that at least one-third of the entering students need some type of remedial instruction although there are no generalizable findings to support that belief. There is less certainty about other types of needs of junior college students which become, in effect, the objectives of the program, e.g., the need to communicate and compute at a given level, to acquire vocational and subject-matter interests, to develop critical thinking skills, and to form healthy recreational and cultural interests. A number of studies now under way should eventually provide considerable evidence in this area. Project Talent (Flanagan et al., 1964) has already suggested that junior college students may represent a "highly selected group with respect to mechanical aptitude, technical aptitude, or some other specialized aptitude only loosely correlated with general academic aptitude."

Evaluation of Counseling. A 10 per cent sample of full-time students in Florida junior colleges (Florida State Department of Education, 1962) were asked to evaluate various counseling services. Over 70 per cent said that information they had received about both transfer and occupational-terminal programs was adequate (or better). They expressed their most favorable attitudes toward counseling concerned with educational planning and their least favorable attitudes toward counseling about personal and social problems. However, on each of a series of items there was a "hard core" group of between 20 and 30 per cent of the students whose responses about counseling were either negative or neutral. Furthermore, 40 per cent professed a lack of understanding of available counseling services and 48 per cent said that interpretations of test results and prior achievement gave a "clouded understanding of their capabilities."

In the New York State study (Department of Education, 1965) a "hard core" student group of about 30 per cent was dissatisfied or neutral about counseling services. In general the students felt that their advisors were trying to help them but a sizeable group said that the advisors did not give as much time to each student as they should, that they did not have adequate information about curriculum requirements, and that they did not really know what the students' needs are.

Attitudes Toward Other Aspects of Student Personnel Programs. The Florida study (Florida State Department of Education, 1962) obtained rather extensive information about the feelings of more than 1,700 junior college students concerning various other aspects of the student personnel program. Faculty academic advising was given a negative evaluation by nearly 30 per cent of the students who felt that their advisors were merely carrying out their assigned duties or were not interested at all. Twenty-two per cent of the students evaluated the assistance they received from their advisors as "of no value" or "incomplete or inaccurate."

Student activities programs were rated less favorably than other aspects of student personnel services. Almost 40 per cent of the students said that existing programs were inadequate (or worse) in meeting their particular needs and interests. They felt that both the number and variety of activities were inadequate and that they had insufficient involvement in determining and directing activities programs. One-third said that student government was either ineffective or performed no worthwhile function.

Although the financial needs of the students were in many cases quite serious, they found it difficult to obtain information about scholarships, loan funds, and part-time employment while enrolled. Placement services for graduates were also given somewhat low ratings, perhaps because the students did not have a need for them at the time.

A more extensive treatment of student characteristics would include the past, the present, and the future, for change is inevitable as the proportion of students who take their lower division work in a two-year institution increases. A few of the factors which should produce changes in the composition of the junior college student body are:

1. The establishment of junior colleges in communities where there have been none heretofore and the creation of whole new systems of junior colleges in some states, both of which will attract additional students into college.

2. Improvement in the reputation of the junior college and in the public's recognition of its role in higher education in preparing students to transfer to four-year institutions.

3. Higher freshman admission standards and increased costs at the four-year institutions, both of which will have the effect of diverting to the junior colleges a larger group of students of a different type than is now enrolled.

Implications

There is hardly a limit to the inferences which might be drawn concerning the implications of student characteristics for student personnel services. In most instances the implications are self-evident, although they are subject to various interpretations by staff members who must translate them into action in their own institutions. It seems completely obvious, for example, that given both the heterogeneity of its student body and its multiple purposes, the viability of the junior college rests squarely on its ability and willingness to consider students as individuals and to provide each one the maximum opportunity for growth and development within the context of his individual background. This requires more than good classroom instruction, important as it is.

As a means of summarizing some of the possible meanings which the nature of junior college student bodies have for the student personnel program, certain generalizations are set forth under the following five general areas.

Setting Goals for Student Personnel Services. If the total educational experience of the students is viewed as the proper concern of the junior colleges, rather than just vocational education and preparation for transfer, then student personnel workers have a responsibility for raising the sights of the students who attend, of helping them set appropriate goals, develop adequate motivation, and make suitable plans for achieving their goals. For students with disadvantaged backgrounds, counselors may have to become substitute parents, in a sense, to offer the kind of encouragement and reinforcement which more highly educated parents would normally provide. It may be the responsibility of counselors to help such students acquire new patterns of values which are more appropriate to the academic way of life.

Responsibility may fall to the student personnel services staff to find ways of personalizing education in what is becoming a mass enterprise. As junior colleges grow large, it will be increasingly difficult for them to retain their image as the kind of college which cares about its individual students, with a faculty which takes a vital interest in students. Counselors and other student personnel workers may in this instance serve as initiators and facilitators in working with the instructional staff to personalize education. In fact, this may be the only means by which a feeling of smallness within institutional bigness may be preserved. It may also be an important means of cooperation with students whose role in institutional direction and decision making is emerging rapidly.

The junior college has an important educational role to play in offering cultural, civic, social, and recreational opportunities to its varied clientele.

A few of the "types" who probably have quite·different needs are:

1. The high school graduate of moderate ability and achievement who enters junior college right after high school as a full-time student with the intention of transferring to a given institution with a particular major;

2. The low achiever in high school who "discovers" college quite late and then becomes highly motivated to enroll in a junior college transfer program for which he is not equipped, yet who may be a "late bloomer";

3. The high school graduate of low ability who enters junior college because of social pressures or because he cannot find employment;

4. The very bright high school graduate who could have been admitted to a major university who may have low scores on measures of "intellectual disposition" and "social maturity";

5. The intellectually capable but unmotivated, disinterested high school graduate who comes to junior college to "explore," hoping it will offer him what he does not know he is looking for;

6. The transfer (in) from a four-year college who either failed or withdrew after an unsatisfactory experience in a semester, a year, or more;

7. The high school dropout who probably comes from a minority group and a culturally disadvantaged family, with only grade-school-level skills and a strong interest in securing vocational training;

8. The late college entrant (over 25) who was employed, in military service, or in the home for a number of years after high school and who now is motivated to pursue an associate (and perhaps a baccalaureate) degree, however long it may take.

Creating a Better Institutional Climate. Depending upon the functions assigned to student personnel workers by different junior colleges, counselors and others may find themselves the gatherers, interpreters, and evaluators of student characteristics data for the entire college staff, both in advising and otherwise working with individual students and in working with faculty and staff in curriculum development and revision and in over-all planning. Student personnel workers may assume the role of the conscience of the junior college by seeking to keep the staff continually aware of its responsibility to implement the goal of universal educational opportunity in the 13th and 14th grades, by advising about programs in which students with varying abilities and interests can succeed. This involves an evaluation function with respect to standards, to help insure that they remain reasonable in times of pressure to conform to university norms, and to insure that individual students get a fair break.

Student personnel workers may also serve an increasingly important function in improving articulation between high school and junior college, and between junior college and four-year colleges and universities. This involves not only the improvement of conditions for students now attracted to junior college, but also the extension of opportunity to students who could profit from junior college but who are not now attending. High school and college counselors might work together to identify youth whom the junior colleges are not now reaching, who have unfulfilled educational and vocational aspirations which could be furthered in the junior college. Similar working arrangements should be made with the four-year colleges to identify and encourage students who could succeed in advanced programs but who may be discouraged from doing so by economic and cultural factors.

Improving Student Personnel Services. Junior college students have generally not been dissatisfied with the counseling service offered them but at the same time have expressed the feeling that improvements could be made. The chief criticism has been the lack of counselor time now available--time per student, time for repeated visits, time to keep up-to-date with respect to curriculum requirements and job opportunities, and time for follow-up activities.

Junior colleges often act and plan as if they kept their students for two full years when, in effect, as many as two-thirds of the students may remain one year or less (or never attain sophomore standing). Programs and services are planned for full-time, day students and the assumption is usually made that what is good for them will be good for all others. More attention should be paid to the needs of the part-time, employed, often adult students who oftentimes have a firm, if long-term educational and vocational goal. Consideration should also be given to extending counseling service beyond the enrolled student body, into the community, at least in the educational and vocational areas.

There has been too little consideration given to what counselors can do to help bring about changes in the "intellectual disposition" and "social maturity" of junior college students, particularly the bright students who come from families with low income, low educational attainment, and low cultural interests. Counselors and faculty members together might consider ways to assist such students to gain autonomy and independence in their thinking to the end that they might better profit from their education.

Among the many special problems in the counseling of junior college students is that of occupational advisement. Given the assumption that most junior college students see college primarily as a means of furthering vocational interests and, further, that their knowledge about the rapidly changing world of work and the educational requirements for many types of work are exceedingly vague, counselors face an enormous task not only of assisting students in making realistic choices but in helping them achieve a sense of confidence and fulfillment as well. Vocational guidance becomes not merely an end unto itself but important also for the effect it has on the stability of the individual. The peculiar characteristics of students accentuate the need for it in the junior college. The task of the counselor in this area looms even greater in view of his difficulty in keeping up-to-date on occupations in a period of unprecedented scientific and technological change.

The Training of Student Personnel Workers. The needs of junior college students for counseling and other personnel services are rather distinct from both the needs of high school students and those of the typical college student in a residential four-year institution. Junior college students are somewhat unique because they come of their own volition, after a twelve-year period of compulsory attendance in local public schools, but they are largely unselected--with respect to ability, interests, socioeconomic backgrounds, motivations, and aspirations. They come in order to gain insights into self, as much as to be educated in the usual college sense. For this reason, counseling and instruction are equal partners in the education of junior college students, more than at any other level of education. The junior college is distinct also in the shortness of the period of time it has to educate its students--two years at best, and less than one for many. While short, it is a time of rapid change for the students--critical decisions to be made about further education and occupational choice; confrontation with new ideas, values, and interests, particularly among students from working class homes; pressures for independence from their families, to take gainful employment, to marry, and to acquire material possessions. Probably never again will these students be confronted with such a large number of important decisions during such a brief period of time, many of which will affect the rest of their lives. For this reason, junior college counseling is believed to have a unique function in education and to require not only the psychological foundations which enable them to work with older youth and adults but also some type of structured internship experience as part of their pre-employment training.

Since junior college students are strongly oriented toward practical, vocational education--including a majority of students in transfer programs--junior college counselors need to have a much sounder foundation in the area of vocational counseling and to acquire means to keep up-to-date when they are on the job than are counselors in four-year colleges. Too many junior college students make vocational choices in which they later are disappointed, because of faulty or out-of-date information about the nature of the field they have chosen or about requirements for entry into it.

Transfer to four-year institutions is also a major goal for a majority of the junior college students now and in the future as four-year colleges become more selective at the freshman level. Junior college counselors-in-training must in some way become aware of the differential qualities, programs, and clientele of the four-year institutions to which their students will transfer and to learn to assess changes in these institutions and in the needs of their students over time.

Junior college counselors need to have a strong commitment to the junior college, to its mission, and to the means which will be employed to achieve its goals. Counselors must be selected who will have this commitment and who will be disposed to work hand-in-hand with faculty and staff in the achievement of common objectives.

Further Research. The junior college student body can be described now with some precision, but further information is needed on the traits and characteristics which produce particular profiles of junior college students with particular counseling needs. A multi-variate approach is needed in studying junior college students because of the complexities of their motivations, interests, backgrounds, and abilities. Basic and institutional research should focus less on percentage, average levels, and distributions of discrete characteristics and more on describing sub-cultures in the junior college student body for whom programs can be planned.

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A TAXONOMY OF JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

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The improvement of junior college student personnel programs has been handicapped by problems in communication, occasioned by the fact that different functions have been given different titles by workers in the field. In order to improve understanding, it would seem necessary to arrive at common names for similar activities. This paper undertakes to establish a taxonomy of such services by distinguishing, ordering, and naming the services typically found in a student personnel program.

Some controversy may be dissipated by such a taxonomy and that which remains may be carried on in a more fruitful fashion once the participants agree with regard to what it is they are disagreeing about.

A college will make available specific services and procedures through its student personnel program in relation to its total aims and purposes. The student personnel functions herein described assume the adoption of concern for total student development and further assume that the college has adopted for its aims the effecting of desired behavioral changes by all available educational devices and techniques. The essential services, ordinarily referred to as student personnel functions, believed to be capable of making significant contributions to such an education have been grouped into the seven categories.

1. The Orientation Functions
2. The Appraisal Functions
3. The Consultative Functions
4. The Regulations Functions
5. The Participation Functions
6. The Service Functions
7. The Organizational Functions

Some explication will be made of each of these student personnel functions in relation to the educational purpose it is designed to serve.

Orientation Functions

Colleges must provide appropriate introductory procedures so that students may, in the limited time available, take full advantage of the opportunities afforded by the institution.

The Pre-College Informational Function. As much as possible must be done prior to actual enrollment to enable the prospective student to become familiar with the facilities the student personnel services and the curricular offerings of the institution. Pre-college informational services should be designed to encourage the prospective student to consider post high school education, to become familiar with the opportunities of the specific college, to help him understand the requirements for admission and entrance to the college and its particular programs and to enable him to reach decisions and develop proper attitudes about college attendance. Procedures that have been established to serve this function are as varied and flexible as imagination permits. Among the approaches most frequently used are those providing communication to the student via counselors, teachers, parents, and others aimed directly at the prospective student. Some examples are:

> The preparation and dissemination of descriptive brochures
>
> Visitation by college counselors to high school senior classes
>
> Visits of high school students individually or in groups to the college campus
>
> Conferences with students and their advisers (parents, teachers, friends) by college officials and teachers
>
> Direct correspondence given information to students with special interests.

The Student Inductive Function. Once the student has made a choice of a particular college, he should then become familiar in a more specific way with the college resources and offerings. For most students, college is a rather wrenching experience, and it cannot be taken for granted that the student can find his own way either geographically or more important, psychologically. Here is a service in which returning students can take much responsibility. This detailed introduction to the campus and to the college mores has traditionally been conducted during an orientation week immediately preceding the beginning of classes.

A more recent trend has been for these introductory functions to be scheduled at various times throughout the summer preceding initial enrollment. The more leisurely pace thus provided and additional time made possible for reflection and the formulation of careful plans has proved, in most instances, to be highly desirable. Minimum implementation of this student inductive function might include:

> Charts and maps of the campus
>
> Tours of the campus conducted by appropriately trained student guides
>
> Group meetings of prospective students in which college officials and student leaders present and explain curricular and extracurricular choices and opportunities as well as college expectations and procedures
>
> Opportunities for try-out experiences, both social and academic

The Occupational Information Function. In this last subtopic of the broad orientation function, the concept of orientation is one of a more pervasive and continuous operation. For students to choose wisely among the various opportunities afforded them in a comprehensive junior college, there can be no substitute for current comprehensive and accurate job information. This information must include sources of additional information, methods of analysis and interpretation of the present status and the trends among pertinent occupations. For maximum or even beneficial utilization of his educational program, the junior college student must make choices from among such alternatives as an occupationally oriented program or a liberal arts general education program leading to transfer for baccalaureate study. If the latter, at least a general decision about broad professional fields within the realm of his interest and capacities must be made. If the former, selection must be from a specific family of occupations with as detailed a specific choice of jobs as is possible consonant with required flexibility for job opportunity shifts in the future. Although the task of providing the kind of information that will enable students to make appropriate choices is a complex one, the junior college must not be overawed by the complexity of the task and must look for novel and increasingly effective methods of providing and disseminating the required knowledge.

Among other devices, colleges that are effective in this area have provided:

> Comprehensive libraries of information containing both general references and specific descriptions of the world of work
>
> Brochures and references that treat the methodology of occupational choice in terms that are meaningful to the student
>
> Seminars on occupations, both general and specific
>
> Making available consultative service pertaining to the various occupations
>
> Encouraging instructional personnel to devote time and attention to occupational outlets pertinent to the various fields of study
>
> Providing within the college analyses of occupational information pertinent to the needs of local students or provisions for the utilization of such analyses from other sources.

It should be realized that the truly concerned college will make sure that opportunities for more detailed and more refined study toward vocational decision will be continuously available to the student throughout his college enrollment and perhaps even beyond for at least certain groups of graduates and former students.

Group Orientation Function. It is realized that many of the functions previously described lend themselves to group work with students. It is mentioned separately here because there exists a sizable group of functions and activities that can perhaps more effectively be conducted with groups than with individual students. Although these experiences are variously organized and range all the way from fairly formal credit courses extending over a semester or an entire academic year to informal seminars of relatively short duration, evidence suggests that groups can best be organized informally and where needs common to all of the members can be identified. Activities range in scope, complexity and time from a one-session group meeting devoted to some particular question of social or academic progress to a lengthy series constituting a complete orientation class. Specific areas where group techniques have demonstrated their value are:

The dissemination and interpretation of occupational information

Gross interpretation of aptitude, interest and achievement tests

The explication of college rules and regulations

The teaching of effective study skills

Educational choices as related to occupational goals.

The Appraisal Functions

The open-door policy of the community junior college, representing as it does a widespread recognition of need for post-secondary education, requires that curricular, student personnel, administrative, and social practices be based upon a thorough understanding of the students to be served. This does not mean that an educational program must be based upon the whim and fancy of every student, but it does mean that a program that is not realistic in terms of the capabilities, interests and goals of students is no program at all.

Depth information on students--psychological, social, economic, and physical--is required to enable a community college to do effective planning. Over the years a number of rather sophisticated devices have been developed to enable the college to obtain necessary data. They have been grouped by Raines and are used for purposes of discussion here in the following categories:

Applicant Appraisal
Educational Testing
Health Appraisal
Basic Skill Diagnosis
Personnel Records.

Applicant Appraisal. Applicant appraisal subsumes all of the devices used by the college to obtain, organize, and evaluate significant background information for each student to determine his eligibility for admission to the college itself or to any one of its courses or curricula, and to determine any conditions or restrictions to be imposed on his admission or re-admission to the college. Reference is made to:

1. The evaluation of transcripts and test results, especially those forwarded from secondary schools and pre-college testing programs,
2. The preparation of comprehensive case studies,
3. Interviewing candidates, and
4. Conducting staff inquiry (e.g. admissions committee, to make final determination concerning eligibility).

Educational Testing. Despite criticism in the last few years of the whole testing movement, the evidence is clear that information obtained about the abilities, aptitudes, achievements and other personality variables of students may be obtained that are of signal value. By judicious use of test data colleges may help students make appropriate choices, evaluate progress within their chosen programs; and on the basis of the general information available concerning the group, provide curricula programs that are meaningful for the students involved.

More specifically, a college might well: (1) Provide a wide variety of measuring instruments to evaluate varying kinds and degrees of individual aptitude, interests, achievement and personality factors as well as measures of institutional climate. (2) Develop local normative data that enables the junior college student to make more refined decisions more quickly. (3) Provide an atmosphere to assure students that a positive approach is being taken toward information revealed through testing. (4) Be constantly alert against potential misuses of tests and of tests information; conduct frequent in-service educational programs to assure a positive and informed set of procedures.

Health Appraisal. This function includes all of those activities of the college designed to produce a systematic and periodic check on the health and physical well-being of its students. Some of the specific devices used by colleges to perform this function include: (1) Employment of a public health nurse as a coordinator and health counselor. (2) Designing functional forms for the systematic canvassing of health and physical conditions. (3) Reviewing health records to identify special problems and properly inform those concerned. (3) Develop appropriate relationships with physicians and other medical officers for evaluation of significant health problems and for expeditious referral. (4) Apprising parents and others interested in and responsible for the health of the students.

Basic Skill Diagnosis. With a great influx of students from varying backgrounds of educational attainment, the community junior college with its open-door admission policies, will need to determine through testing and survey of previous records the levels of skill in reading, listening, speaking, writing and mathematics which are prerequisite to academic progress. To meet this current and growing responsibility, a program must be developed to include testing to reveal specific difficulties within the basic academic skills; interviews and depth probing with more refined diagnostic tools for students whose test results indicate unaccountable deficiencies in any particular area or areas; establishment of remedial courses in these tool subjects; coordination with instructors in regular course assignments to provide carry-over experiences from the special skills laboratories; and programmed instruction and other materials so students can enter into self-help regimens.

Personnel Records. A concerned college will keep accurate, functional records of the information obtained through these various appraisal functions and will make these records into a cumulative file of student information reflecting educational, social, and physical development. In addition to test information and transcripts their file should contain basic personal information, the activities in which the student participates, awards received, judgmental ratings by faculty members, special problems encountered and other items that will provide a functional, meaningful and useful history of the student's achievements and promise.

There should be constant review of student records to insure that they are indeed effective and functional. Records do not exist for their own sake; they exist only for the purpose of assisting the college to help the student meet the aims and objectives of his collegiate program. Therefore, they should be comprehensive, pertinent, accurate and have the widest possible dissemination.

The Consultative Functions

Pre-enrollment. As noted under Orientation Functions, the prospective student has need to talk with a knowledgeable college official about certain immediate concerns and to have some of his questions answered. Typical inquiries of the entering college student center on (a) requirements for admission to college and the steps necessary to make formal application, (b) problems anticipated as a college student and how to meet them, (c) the selection of vocational and educational objectives, and (d) the choice of courses which will fulfill curricular requirements and lead to the attainment of vocational educational goals. Colleges should be aware of these common needs of all applicants and should provide such student services by regularly scheduled conference time either on an individual or small group sessions.

Advisement. Today's college freshman, as he scans college catalogs containing hundreds of course offerings, lists of extra-curricular activities, names of professors and different degrees and their rigid requirements, is likely to feel more confused than a foreign visitor at an American baseball game without a score card. Faced with this "buzzing sea of confusion" on the many choices and decisions he must make, every beginning college student needs a wise, adult friend, guide and adviser, who has the time and patience to listen to him and who is qualified to assist and advise him. He needs assistance in such matters as: (a) selection of courses which are in line with his curricular interests, vocational choice, senior college preferences, (b) effective methods of study, (c) evaluation of academic progress and appraisal of the results of the choices or decisions made previously, and (d) identification of and referral to special resources within the college or community that might meet the special needs of the student.

The adviser-advisee relationship is one of the primary means by which the student's education is individualized. By his attitude the professional counselor or the faculty adviser can convey to the student that he has a continuing interest in him and that ideally there is mutual friendliness, confidence, and respect for each other's individuality.

Counseling. If a junior college is to concern itself with the total development of the student, it is obvious that certain student needs, interests, and problems cannot be met adequately through classroom instruction, faculty advising, and organized extra-class activities. Hence, the comprehensive community college will have on its staff professionally trained counselors who will provide services to the students who seek or need special assistance in (a) formulating vocational educational plans, (b) clarifying their basic values, attitudes, interests, and abilities, (c) identifying and resolving problems which may be interfering with their educational plans and progress, (d) identifying appropriate resources of assistance for resolving more intensive and deep-seated personal problems.

Coordination and supervision of the counseling staff should be the responsibility of one member of the student personnel division who has at minimum a Master's degree in the field of counseling and guidance together with a broad background of experience in counseling. He should have a staff of professional counselors sufficient in number to achieve an optimum of one counselor per 300 full time students and a maximum not to exceed a ratio of 1 to 500. In order to function effectively on a professional level, the staff will need to develop a basic system for maintaining records of counseling interviews, adhere to professional standards in protecting the confidentiality of information entrusted to them by students and faculty, develop and keep current a comprehensive and readily accessible file of occupational and senior college information, and accept responsibility for developing a systematic program for appraising and evaluating the effectiveness of the counseling services provided students.

Student Registration. This function applies to all of those procedures through which students are officially enrolled in classes, demographic data are collected, class size is regulated and official records of each student's academic progress and status are initiated and maintained. The Registrar and his staff, as well as other specially assigned student personnel workers, are responsible for such duties as (a) designing registration forms and data processing procedures, (b) processing class changes and withdrawals, (c) processing instructor's grades, (d) providing transcripts of student's records to senior colleges and other advanced institutions to which the student seeks admission.

Academic Regulations. Individual variations may be noted in colleges as to the degree of responsibility faculty committees may have in determining and executing academic regulations, but in all instances the student personnel workers are involved in working with academic policies, procedures, and regulations that foster student attainment of institutional objectives and commitments.

Specifically, the worker may have such assignments as (a) expediting probationary policies, (b) evaluating graduation eligibility, (c) handling cases of student cheating, (d) interviewing students being terminated from or seeking re-admission to the college.

Social Regulations. Colleges recognize the importance of developing social competence as well as vocational or intellectual competence in its students, and in their list of formal educational objectives usually is to be found one that states this explicitly. The present day community college, which draws its students from various social levels, undoubtedly presents a wide range of attitudes regarding the social amenities, in responsibility versus irresponsibility toward persons and property, in standards of moral and ethical conduct, in sympathetic interest and concern for the rights and welfare of others, and in the problem of authority versus self-determination.

Student personnel workers are directly involved in teaching social skills, in working with and through student groups to achieve the social and educational objectives of the extracurriculum, and in developing higher values and standards of taste and behavior in the student body.

The student personnel staff, especially those responsible for the direction of the social program, student activities, and residence halls will be involved in such specific assignments as (a) developing policies and regulations for the maintenance of personal-social standards of conduct, (b) handling cases of social misconduct and violations of the rules of group living, (c) interpreting regulations to students and faculty.

The Participation Functions

Student Affairs. If the education of the student is conceived in broader terms than that which occurs only in the classroom or library, then everything he does outside of classes and academic routines has potential for his educational growth and development. These experiences and activities have been described as extra-curricular or co-curricular, and are the proper concern and responsibility of the student personnel worker. Complementing classroom teaching and enhancing academic learning, these co-curricular activities of the college contribute to the development of cultural, educational and vocational opportunities for students. Included in this group are such personnel functions as (a) arranging for cultural activities (musical, forensic, dramatic, intellectual, etc.), (b) sponsoring of clubs and organizations of all varieties, (c) assisting student publications staff, (d) organizing vocational interest groups.

Student Self-Government. In many colleges the student government constitutes the primary and most significant of all student activities for the personnel worker and for the student. Training for citizenship is necessary to the survival of our democratic ideals and our national life. The community college, encompassing more and more young Americans, must provide opportunities and encouragement for students to participate in self-governing activities that provide experiences in decision-making through democratic processes.

The student personnel worker must function as a responsible leader and counselor in the areas of citizenship skills, group processes, and personal values if satisfactory government in the college community is to be achieved. His assignments are likely to include such activities as (a) advising student governing organizations, (b) providing training in formal and informal group processes, (c) conducting leadership training programs, and (d) supervising elections.

One member of the student personnel staff should be appointed to serve as coordinator and director of student activities program with assistance from additional members of the college staff.

The Service Functions

Financial Assistance. "Working one's way through college" embodying the tradition of self-help and economic independence from one's parents has been characteristic of a certain percentage of American college students from early times. With the costs of attending college rising as much as 10 per cent each year, it appears that both students and the government (district, state and/or national) will necessarily need greater financial resources in the future to pay for education.

Therefore, both part-time jobs and financial subsidy, in the forms of loans, grants or work scholarships, are becoming a greater necessity for an ever-increasing number of students. The student personnel worker plays a crucial role in working with students whose entrance into or continuation in college is impaired by lack of finances. Specific assignments of a worker in this area might be (a) reviewing loan requests, (b) counseling regarding budget management, (c) seeking new subscribers or donors, and (d) locating part-time jobs.

Graduate Placement. Job placement is of prime importance to the non-transferring graduate of the community college. The program of placement must be related to both the curricular offerings of the college and the needs of the community which it serves. While various department or division heads may be responsible for their particular areas in placement, one member of the student personnel staff should coordinate the program to secure a unified approach. The placement officer has the responsibility for (a) locating appropriate employment opportunities for those graduates suitably qualified, (b) providing prospective employers with placement information (student experience, background, academic progress, vocational competence) that may be helpful in reaching employment decisions, and (c) systematic follow-up studies of students who are placed in jobs; evaluation of their efficiency and effectiveness, and interpretation of findings to the college staff as a means of strengthening the total college program, and improving placement procedures.

The Organizational Function

In order that the services described may be effectively provided, careful attention must be given to appropriate organization, administration and in-service education. Student personnel functions will not "just happen" and they cannot be relegated to administrative officers who, because of lack of appropriate training, time or interest, will make only haphazard and sporadic attempts to provide a student personnel facade. To be effective, programs must be adequately staffed, housed, financed, evaluated and effectively related to the total mission of the college.

Administrative Organization. Provision must be made for an adequate number of qualified professional and clerical staff members, suitable facilities and equipment and an integrative plan of organization. Specifically, the college will (a) formulate and periodically review the objectives of the college and the policies established to effect these objectives, (b) examine student personnel functions described herein to determine their congruence with the stated objectives, to measure their fulfillment of these objectives, (c) provide a corps of well-prepared counselors and student personnel workers dedicated to and capable of achieving these aims.

> Minimum preparation for junior college personnel workers would include two years of graduate study with specific emphasis upon college student personnel work against a backdrop of adequate preparation in psychological, social and humanistic studies. Although it is difficult to determine a fixed ratio of professional student personnel workers to students, no one sophisticated in the field could defend a ratio higher than 500:1 and most would argue for a ratio closer to 300:1.

(d) provide adequate clerical staff to enable the professional workers to best utilize their time and energy on those functions which they alone can do, (e) provide adequate physical facilities giving careful attention to the essential factors of privacy and confidentiality, (f) provide adequate budgetary provision using as a rough guide a minimum of 10 per cent of the amount expended on operation of the instructional program, (g) provide the time and leadership commensurate with the importance of the student personnel as one of the three most important functions of any educational institution, and (h) provide opportunities for full and open participation of all members of the student personnel staff in the curricular, instructional and administrative affairs of the college.

Program Articulation. Student personnel programs will be effective to the degree that they supplement and complement other educational experiences of the student. Specifically, these measures of articulation are recommended: (a) will develop and maintain procedures for informing faculties and staffs of area high schools concerning the opportunities and requirements of the college, (b) maintain relations with the high school faculties that will engender a positive attitude concerning the educational opportunities available at the college, (c) provide opportunities whereby the student personnel staff can communicate effectively with the other college staff members particularly in regard to the needs and characteristics of the students and in regard to faculty reaction to role of the counselors, (d) provide good lines of communication between the college and other agencies of the community which can provide educational and developmental services to the college students, (e) provide and maintain close liaison with members of the industrial and commercial enterprises of the community to foster educational experiences of an occupational nature and to secure employment opportunities for college students and graduates, (f) maintain a cooperative and continuous relationship with four-year colleges and universities, and (g) provide means by which the junior college can evaluate and amend its programs and offerings in light of the experiences of its students in employment and in advanced educational institutions.

In-Service Training. No student personnel nor other educational staff is as well prepared as it is potentially capable of being. To be effective, every college will devise carefully planned programs of in-service education for all of its professional workers. Specific recommendations are (a) provide systematic opportunities for professional discussion among student personnel staff members, (b) budget for and secure consultants for special areas of interest or need, (c) make available professional articles, journals and other educational materials,

(d) provide and interpret research data concerning college students, (e) provide occupational and other information concerning the broader societal opportunities, (f) provide student personnel workers with clear, meaningful and accurate information concerning curricula and courses, (g) provide opportunities for analysis and evaluation leading to improvements of interviewing, test interpretation, vocational counseling, educational planning and all other student personnel functions.

PART IV

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND FINDINGS

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH ON JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

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In carrying out its appraisal of junior college student personnel programs, the Committee undertook two major research studies. The first was a survey and appraisal of junior college student personnel programs, and the second was a study of the preparation of junior college student personnel specialists. The first research is reported in the following three chapters: "An Appraisal of Basic Student Personnel Functions Within Junior Colleges" by Donald Hoyt and Max R. Raines, "A Descriptive Comparison of Student Personnel Programs in Large Junior Colleges" by Max R. Raines and J. W. McDaniel and "Significance of Selected Variables in Differentiating Strong and Weak Programs" by Max R. Raines. The second research study is reported in the chapter "Appraisal of Existing and Potential Resources for the Preparation of Junior College Student Personnel Specialists" by Jane E. Matson. Dr. Matson discusses the design of the second study, and therefore, this introduction will confine itself to the study of student personnel programs.

Objectives

Five objectives were established for this study:

I. Basic Functions. To define a group of non-instructional functions which (by consensus of experts) comprise a basic student personnel program for junior colleges.

II. Classification Patterns. To determine the extent to which current practice in administrative classification of functions coincides with the identification of the basic student personnel functions provided by the experts.

III. Implementation Appraisals. To appraise the adequacy of implementations of basic student personnel functions in a sample of larger junior colleges, that is, those with over 1,000 students.

IV. Relationship Variables. To examine the relationship of the appraised adequacy or implementation of each of the basic student personnel functions to the following three variables:

   a. Administrative classification of functions
   b. Selected development
   c. Qualifications of staff members performing the functions.

V. Program Comparisons. To compare the strongest and weakest student personnel programs within the large college sample, to illustrate the differences in operational practices, and to examine the relationship of selected institutional characteristics to effectiveness in programming.

The Sample

Two purposes guided the selection of the sample. First, it needed to be broadly representative of present junior colleges. Second, it needed to provide data applicable to the types of junior colleges which will have to carry most of the burden which projected enrollments are expected to place on junior colleges in future years.

A large number of characteristics could be considered in selecting a representative group. Age of institution, source of support, type of program, size, and location represent some of the dimensions upon which institutions vary. Two of these were chosen as critical stratification variables--size and location (region).

Size. Of the 719 junior colleges listed in the 1964 Junior College Directory, 208 enrolled more than 1,000 students. Yet these 208 enrolled about three-fourths of all junior college students. It seems likely that the junior college of over 1,000 enrollment will increasingly play a dominant role in the total junior college effort. Thus the decision was made to study intensively a sample of junior colleges which enrolled over 1,000 students.

However, the smaller junior college is not only more typical of the present population, but it will also persist in American higher education in the years to come. Thus, a comprehensive appraisal of status could not neglect such colleges. Though the decision was made to concentrate attention on the larger colleges, the need to provide some baseline data regarding smaller schools was recognized and incorporated into the final plan.

Region. Having decided to study large and small schools separately, it became necessary to find a method of representatively sampling from these two populations. Region of the country was used as a stratification variable to avoid some of the oddities which pure random sampling can produce. Accordingly, the country was divided into seven regions.[1] The proportions of large and small junior colleges in each region were determined; these proportions were used to determine how many colleges of each type would be studied in each region. The specific colleges were chosen at random within each region.

A total of 50 large colleges and 100 small colleges were selected by this process. Cooperation was received from 49 of the large colleges and 74 of the small.[2] The sample of participating colleges was found to resemble closely the total population on a variety of variables not used in the stratification process, including age, type of control, and accreditation.[3]

Method of Data Collection

A questionnaire approach was used to obtain some of the data but was not used as the prime data collection device. Since much of the critical data was judgmental in nature, problems related to idiosyncratic frames of reference and to potential defensiveness engendered by the "threat" of evaluation could not be overcome with confidence through questionnaire survey.

Accordingly, it was decided that judgmental data should be collected by "outside" experts who could be trained to employ a similar frame of reference and whose judgments could be made more objectively without the distortion produced by personal involvement. A total of 12 professionally qualified and experienced junior college student personnel workers were appointed as evaluation experts. They participated in a five-day training workshop in which a standard interview guide was developed and field-tested. Special efforts were made to ensure that each expert adopted a comparable frame of reference in making his judgments.

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[1] For a map of the regions see Appendix A.

[2] For a listing of participating colleges see Appendix B.

[3] For a comparison of the sample to the total population see Appendix C.

These interviewers visited each of the 49 large colleges participating in the study. Prior to the visit, they reviewed a considerable body of information which had been collected about each college. They spent a full day talking with an average of seven staff members at each college. On the basis of these interviews, a series of objective ratings were made (to be described later) and a comprehensive narrative report was prepared.

Supplementary information was collected by inventories administered to staff members at the participating institutions. This information included a review of the present duties of every staff member who devoted at least half time to one or more of a specified set of non-instructional functions. Information about education and professional experience of these individuals was also collected. Finally, the chief student personnel administrator indicated the administrative unit responsible for the immediate supervision of each function.

Data from the 74 small colleges were less extensive. Although visitations were made to 21 of these schools, the ratings were considered tentative because too few colleges were visited to permit valid inferences from such data. As a result, only the questionnaire responses of college personnel were analyzed for the small college sample.

Instrumentation

In view of the purposes which guided the study, an attempt was made to construct instruments which could be used to assess the extensiveness of current non-instructional functions, their administrative classification, and the effectiveness with which they were being performed. In addition, the devices facilitated a description of the roles of present staff in performing these functions as well as their academic and experiential preparation for such roles. Finally, the instruments made possible an assessment of the impact of selected variables on program developments.

The two instruments used--the Inventory of Selected College Functions (ISCF) and the Inventory of Staff Resources (ISR)--may be found in Appendix D.

While staff members at participating colleges filled out all parts of both, only their responses to the factual questions were ultimately used in the statistical analysis. The ISCF called for staff judgments which were reviewed by interviewers prior to their visits but the ultimate appraisals were made by the interviewers and not the staff members.

Functions. A total of 35 non-instructional functions were identified and defined. The list of functions was prepared after reviewing the literature related to junior college student personnel programs and was revised in accordance with the suggestions of a group of experienced consultants. It was intended to be comprehensive and included functions which were known to be provided only in the most complete and affluent programs (e.g. the "Health Clinical Function" including infirmary and psychotherapeutic services) as well as functions which would have to be provided in every institution (e.g. the "Student Registration Function").

Developmental Characteristics.[4] From a review of pertinent literature and with the advice of consultants, a list of institutional characteristics which presumably could affect the development of programs of student services was drawn up. A total of 16 such characteristics were identified, ranging from such concrete matters as "size of staff" and "clerical assistance" to such nebulous variables as "workable ideas and concepts" and "faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies." Interviewers who visited the 49 large schools were asked to judge the impact of each variable on a five-point scale ranging from "very positive" (5) to "very restrictive" (1).

Staff Qualifications. The ISR required staff members to describe their work experiences and educational histories. In addition, they were requested to indicate the approximate number of graduate credits earned in each of 12 types of courses believed to be most relevant to the preparation of junior college student personnel workers. These included counseling courses, practicum courses, and courses in testing, group guidance or group dynamics, occupational information, research and statistics, student personnel work, junior college education, other higher education areas, and the cognate fields of psychology, sociology, and anthropology. If a staff member indicated he had taken 30 or more graduate credits (reasonably well distributed among these areas), he was considered to be at least minimally trained academically. Those with less than 30 graduate hours in these fields were classified as academically untrained staff members in student personnel.

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[4] See Appendix D.

Limitations

The Inventories employed in the survey were of sufficient length to tax the patience of respondents and undoubtedly accounted for some of the incomplete responses. The reported time for completion ranged from one hour to three hours with the average length of time being about 90 minutes. There were 495 usable responses to the ISCF and 456 usable responses to the ISR. It is known that some participating colleges did not administer the Inventories to all of those who were employed at least half-time in performing inventory functions; this complicates any effort to project accurately the numbers of student personnel workers having various levels of training or occupying various positions through the country.

While the visitations of trained interviewers were most helpful in providing appraisals, a one-day visit was less than desirable. Hopefully, the time limitations were partially offset by the accessibility of considerable institutional and staff information prior to the visit.

The interview is not always an effective appraisal device. We hoped to overcome some of its shortcomings by carefully selecting experienced and well trained practitioners, providing an intensive training workshop, and using a common interview guide. Whether these safeguards were adequate for overcoming personal biases and for establishing a common evaluative frame of reference could not be determined from our data.

The absence of empirical criteria of effectiveness forced reliance upon "conventional wisdom." Thus, the interviewers based judgments on evidence believed to be symptomatic of effectiveness. Their narrative descriptions of the nature of implementations supported the writers' faith in the validity of the appraisals.

Terminology

Several terms are used repeatedly throughout the research report, and it will be helpful for the reader to understand their use.

> Function. A function was defined as "a cluster of related activities of the college provided

to support instruction, respond to student needs and promote institutional welfare."

Implementation. This term was used to indicate that development of activities within a given function had evolved to the point that the function was recognizable as an entity and could be judged in terms of its general effectiveness both in scope and quality.

Basic Student Personnel Program. Twenty-one functions were selected by consensus of the 12 interviewers as comprising a basic core of student personnel functions for any junior college.

Appraisal. The combined and weighted ratings of scope and quality of implemented functions provided by the project interviewers.

Developmental Variables. A series of predetermined variables which were thought to bear some relationship to the development of functions and total programs.

Format

The findings reported will include (1) an analysis of institutional responses and interviewer appraisals for each function individually, (2) more global comparisons of the strongest and weakest student personnel programs in the large colleges as reflected in the combined functions which constituted their student personnel program, and (3) the significance of selected variables in differentiating strong and weak programs.

AN APPRAISAL OF BASIC STUDENT PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS WITHIN JUNIOR COLLEGES

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It is the lot of the dedicated in any field to experience discouragement over the current status of professional affairs. Chronic dissatisfaction can be a useful stimulus if it is sharply focused on the elements which need attention and improvement. Failure to obtain a clear focus, however, contributes to confusion and a sense of futility. Hopefully, this report, though somewhat critical, will provide a focus that is prerequisite to development.

Basic Student Personnel Functions Are Definable for the Junior College.

While 35 selected college non-instructional functions were listed in the ISCF, it was recognized that some of them would be found only in the most affluent programs. Hoping to identify a basic core of functions applicable to any junior college, regardless of size, location, and type, the project interviewers were requested to select those functions which they regarded as meeting basic institutional needs. Following their visits they reflected on their experiences and submitted their judgments individually. A majority believed that 21 of the 35 functions were necessary to meet basic institutional needs. These functions were then accepted as basic student personnel functions for the junior college. To provide further focus the functions were classified by rational processes into seven categories. With a minimum of overlapping but with some unavoidable semantic problems, they are classified as functions of Orientation, Appraisal, Consultation, Regulation, Participation, Service and Organization.

Presence of Basic Functions Was Determined by Institutional Coordinators.

Appendix E lists the basic functions according to the selected categories and indicates the percentage of implementations among the large and small colleges as seen by the institutional coordinator of the study. In every function but one (Co-Curricular Activities) the large colleges claimed implementation more frequently than the small colleges. The majority of both groups claimed implementation for all functions. The only function which failed to exceed the 70 per cent level among the colleges was Graduate Placement which dropped to 58 per cent among the small colleges. One hundred per cent of the large colleges judged themselves as having implemented 10 of the 21 basic functions.

Institutional Coordinators Provided the Classification Patterns.

By the same reasoning it was felt that the institutional coordinators in each institution should be the source of classification information. Appendix E also indicates the extent to which these coordinators reported a student personnel relationship for each function. While the actual judgments were more specific, for purposes of clarity the table was categorized into three headings: (1) primarily student personnel, (2) student personnel and other divisions, and (3) non-student personnel. Again, the differences between small colleges and large colleges were immediately apparent in classification patterns.

While at least two-thirds of the small colleges reported only 10 of the functions as being student personnel related, a similar proportion of the larger colleges classified all but two of the basic functions as student personnel related. The percentages were higher in every case for larger colleges. The largest discrepancy between the two groups was in the Administrative Organizational function and probably reflects a relationship between specialization level and size. Small colleges of less than 500 students typically have a central administrator who must wear many hats but who frequently identifies himself with the "academic-instructional division" or with "general administration." The traditional pattern for placing "registration" in the academic wing was noted even among the large colleges (particularly the older ones).

In general, the basic functions were organized under student personnel auspices among colleges having more than 1000 students, but this was less true for the smaller colleges.

Appraisals of Implementation Were Less Than Favorable.

Each visiting interviewer of the 49 large colleges was asked to quantify his evaluations of how well each function was performed. The procedures are described in Appendix F. By combining their judgments of scope and quality into a single scale of "effectiveness" it was possible to quantify their observations for statistical analysis.

The first concern was to determine the general level of effectiveness with which the basic functions were being provided. Appendix G provides a graphic summary of appraisals for each of the functions and is arranged in order from the most to the least effectively implemented functions.

Adequacy of Current Programs Will Reflect the Reader's Standards.

One cannot say how good or how bad the "status of the art" is until he determines acceptable standards--minimal as well as optimal. If ratings of excellence are to be the standard, the picture is dismal. For almost every function, ratings of "Excellent" were found in fewer than 10 per cent of the colleges.

Such standards, while desirable, are probably unrealistic at this time. But if we want to judge the adequacy of present status, some standard must be adopted for comparative purposes. The authors felt that a minimally satisfactory state of affairs would exist if at least two-thirds of the college implemented at least two-thirds of the functions at a "satisfactory" level. This arbitrary guideline was believed to be minimal; it was restricted to basic functions, required no "excellent" implementations, permitted up to one-third of the basic functions to be poorly implemented (or not implemented at all), and required that only two-thirds of junior colleges provide programs at a satisfactory level.

Results showed that only 5 of the 21 basic functions were satisfactorily implemented by two-thirds or more of the college. In terms of the authors' standard, junior college student personnel programs are currently being provided well below a minimally satisfactory level.

The arbitrary nature of this judgment is recognized. The standard was deliberately set low to avoid accusations of being unrealistic. It seems inevitable that a higher minimum will be set in the future, and there are many who will feel that the present suggestion should have been more demanding. Few will argue with the conclusion that the present state of affairs requires dramatic improvement.

Management Needs Take Precedence Over Student Needs in Implementation.

If one examines the types of functions which are predominant among those most favorably implemented, he will note that they are largely concerned with institutional management. In short, these are the kinds of functions the college must provide to exist (e.g. Pre-College Informational, Student Registering, Academic Regulatory, Social Regulatory, etc.). The absence of functions related to guidance and counseling among the most favorably implemented is regrettable in an institutional setting which frequently cites guidance as one of its major attributes. In this context, one cannot help but note that the upgrading functions of In-Service Education and Student Personnel Evaluative are among the least favorably implemented.

Selected Variables Are Related to Adequacy of Implementation.

Having ascertained the distribution of levels of effectiveness in implementation of each of the functions, questions were raised as to what variables or institutional characteristics might be related to effectiveness. The first of these investigations concern the relationship of administrative classification patterns to the effectiveness of implementation. Another question concerned the relationship of a set of developmental characteristics to adequacy of implementation. A third examined the relationship of adequacy to the qualifications of staff (supervisory and non-supervisory) involved in performing each function.

Classification Patterns Reveal Limited Relationships to Effectiveness.

Interviewers' effectiveness ratings were categorized into three levels: "satisfactory," "mediocre," and "unsatisfactory." Effectiveness ratings were then cross-tabulated with three categories of administrative classification: "primarily student personnel," "student personnel and other division," and "non-student personnel."

Statistical analysis showed that for 19 of the 21 functions, there was no significant association between the two variables.

In brief, effectiveness ratings were independent of classification patterns for these functions. The functions which were organized under "non-student personnel" were performed as effectively as those organized under student personnal auspices.

The only exceptions to this generalization occurred in the Student Advisory and Student Self-Governing functions. In the Student Advisory function, 37.5 per cent of the unsatisfactory programs were organized under non-student personnel divisions, while only 3.3 per cent of the satisfactory programs were so organized. In the Student Self-Governing function, these figures were 25.0 per cent and 11.4 per cent. It appears that these two functions are carried out more satisfactorily when organized under the student personnel division. But such an arrangement does not guarantee satisfactory performance since the majority of unsatisfactory implementations are also so organized.

The fact that the vast majority of large colleges did classify nearly every basic function at least partly under the student personnel division prevented a rigorous investigation of the importance of organizational pattern.

To partly compensate for this statistical difficulty, one further tabulation was made. In this tabulation, the per cent of satisfactory implementations organized under each of the three administrative classifications was compared with the per cent of unsatisfactory implementations. A simple count was made of the number of functions classified as "primarily student personnel" in which there were a higher per cent of satisfactory programs than of unsatisfactory implementations. This occurred in 16 of the 21 basic functions. When the functions were organized under "student personnel and other division" this number was reduced to nine; and it was only four in the case of functions organized under "non-student personnel" divisions. These results suggest that there may be a somewhat firmer relationship between classification patterns and effectiveness than suggested by the more formal statistical analyses.

Even so, this relationship does not appear to be a very strong one. Simply organizing all basic functions under the student personnel division would not ensure an increase in effectiveness, though it might facilitate some improvements.

Several Developmental Characteristics Appear Strongly Related to Effective Implementation of Individual Functions.

Following their visits, the 12 interviewers were asked to judge the impact of 16 selected characteristics (listed in Appendix G) upon the development of the student personnel programs. Each characteristic was rated on a scale ranging from "very positive impact" to "very restrictive impact."

The composite ratings of the 16 selected developmental variables were then compared to the distribution of effectiveness ratings for each of the 21 basic functions.

A large number of significant relationships emerged upon statistical analysis. Every developmental characteristic was related to the effectiveness with which one or more of the 21 basic functions were being performed. Four of these variables seemed to have especially pervasive relationships. (1) "Clarity of roles" was related to the effectiveness with which eight different basic functions were implemented. (2) "Identification of supporting data to stimulate development" was related to effectiveness ratings in six of the basic functions. (3) "Faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies" and (4) "Support from administration" were related to the effectiveness of four functions.

In none of the 45 significant differences established by the statistical analysis did unexpected results occur. That is, satisfactory implementations always obtained more favorable ratings on the developmental variable than did unsatisfactory implementations.

The effectiveness with which six of the basic functions were implemented was unrelated to any developmental characteristics. These functions were Student Inductive, Educational Testing, Applicant Appraisal, Student Registration, Academic Regulatory, and Graduate Placement.

For the other 15 functions, at least one developmental factor was related to effectiveness. In each case, satisfactory performance was related to the positiveness of the rating given to the variable. The relationships are summarized below:

Function	Developmental Characteristics
Pre-College Information	Clarity of goals and policies
Occupational Information	Clarity of staff roles

Function	Developmental Characteristics
Group Orienting	Professional competency of staff
Personnel Records	Clerical assistance; size of staff; identification of supportive data to stimulate development
Applicant Consulting	Equipment; size of staff; clarity of staff roles; support from administration
Student Advisory	Identification of supporting data
Student Counseling	Identification of supporting data
Student Self-Governing	Physical facilities; equipment
Co-Curricular Activities	Faculty concurrence with goals and policies; staff cohesiveness and cooperation
Social Regulatory	Physical facilities; equipment; clarity of staff roles; workable ideas and concepts; identification of supporting data
Financial Assisting	Faculty concurrence with goals and policies; clarity of staff roles; identification of supporting data
Program Articulating	Holding power for qualified staff; faculty concurrence with goals and policies; support from administration
Student Personnel Evaluative	Clarity of staff roles
In-Service Educative	Clerical assistance; clarity of staff roles; in-service training; workable ideas and concepts
Administrative Organization	Clarity of staff roles; support from administration; support from faculty

A review of this listing suggests that leadership is needed if programs are to be strengthened. For example, vagueness regarding staff assignments seems to be characteristic of weaker programs. In some cases this may result from an inadequate number of staff members, but it would appear that failure to make assignments clear is a restrictive influence that could be eliminated. Likewise, an investigative and research attitude toward pertinent data and information might stimulate program improvement.

Staff Qualifications Reflect Limited Relationship to Implementation of Specific Functions.

Staff members who served as "direct supervisors" or as "active participants" in each of the 21 functions were identified and the self-reported graduate credits they had attained in courses related to student personnel programming were used to classify them as trained or untrained student personnel workers. As was previously indicated, a minimum of 30 hours of appropriate credits was used as the point of stratification. A comparison was made between effectiveness ratings for each function and the training levels (a) supervisors and (b) active participants.

No significant relationships were found between the training of supervisors and the satisfactoriness of implementations of 18 of the 21 basic functions. Relationships between training levels of supervisors and the effectiveness with which a function was performed were established for the Pre-College Information, Personnel Records, and Social Regulatory functions.

Only in the case of Personnel Records was the relationship clear. In this area, 10.6 per cent of the trained supervisors were involved in unsatisfactory implementations and 59.6 per cent were involved in satisfactory implementations; the figures for the untrained supervisors were 31.2 and 37.5 respectively.

In both the Pre-College Information and Social Regulatory functions the relationship between supervisor's training and implementation effectiveness was difficult to interpret. The trained supervisors were involved in both more unsatisfactory and more satisfactory implementations than were untrained supervisors; it was in the mediocre implementations that untrained supervisors were disproportionately represented. This may reflect an important complex relationship, but it may also represent some extreme fluctuations due to chance factors alone. In the absence of cross-validation, the latter alternative seems most acceptable.

With respect to active participants, no relationships were found between training level and effectiveness with which 19 of the 21 functions were implemented. In the Student Advisory and Social Regulatory functions, significant relationships were found. In the former, 82.0 per cent of trained participants were involved in satisfactory programs while 10.0 per cent were involved in unsatisfactory programs; for the untrained participants these figures were 58.8 and 35.3 respectively. Results for the Social Regulatory function were similar but less marked; two-thirds of the trained participants were involved in satisfactory programs while only 44.4 per cent of the non-trained were similarly involved.

The fact that there was not a stronger relationship between training levels and effective implementation of a particular function is somewhat surprising. Of course, it is not known what relationships might have been found if the 30-hour minimum had been lowered or raised or if certain course areas had been emphasized such as counseling, testing, and practicum experiences. The limited relationship between training and adequacy of implementation of a particular function may merely underscore the fact that many other variables take precedence over training. Among these might be such things as general administrative leadership and support, personal characteristics of the staff members, their experience in education, the variations in the nature and quality of the training received in the graduate institutions, the adequacy of developmental resources within the college, etc. Although effectiveness is probably complexly determined, a succeeding chapter will show that when stronger and weaker programs are matched on the basis of institutional size, their student personnel staffs can be distinguished in terms of certain specific types of graduate preparation.

Summary

In general, the analysis of the responses of participants to the ISCF and the ISR as well as the appraisals of effectiveness of implementation by project interviewers revealed that (1) practice generally supports the consensus of "experts" regarding basic student personnel functions; (2) large colleges classify the basic functions as "student personnel related" more frequently than small colleges; (3) effectiveness of implementation of the majority of basic functions was considerably limited at least in large colleges; (4) classification patterns bore little relationship to the appraised effectiveness of the basic functions; (5) selected developmental characteristics such as "clarity of staff roles," "identification of supportive data," "faculty concurrence with goals and policies," and "support from administration" were significantly related to the effectiveness of implementation of the majority of the functions; and (6) graduate preparation as student personnel workers, when set at a 30 credit minimum of student personnel training, was not closely related to the effectiveness of implementation of individual functions.

A DESCRIPTIVE COMPARISON OF STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS IN LARGE JUNIOR COLLEGES

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While the focus of the preceding paper was an analysis of each of the 21 basic functions and their relationship to selected variables, this paper is concerned with descriptive comparisons of large junior colleges in the study having the strongest and those having the weakest student personnel programs.

Determination of relative strength or weakness of programs was based on a ranking of the 49 larger colleges according to the number of favorably implemented functions among the 21 basic functions. The degree of favorableness was employed in the ranking process only in cases of ties.

The rank order[1] ranged from one college with 19 favorably and no unfavorably implemented functions, to a college having only one favorable implementation but 15 unfavorable implementations. It was noted that no college achieved satisfactory implementation of all of the basic student personnel functions. The median college had 10 favorably and 5 unfavorably implemented functions.

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[1] See Appendix K for a graphic summary of program adequacy by quartile distribution.

Statistical analysis revealed that eleven functions discriminated between the strongest and weakest programs. Effective implementation of the following functions was related to the perception of a program as strong--Group Orienting Function, Career Informational Function, Applicant Appraisal Function, Student Counseling Function, Applicant Consulting, Social Regulatory, Academic Regulatory, Student Self-Governing, Financial Assisting, In-Service Education and Administrative Organization. Direct quotations of the report of interviewers will be used in several cases to illustrate the nature of strong and weak programs.

Functions of Orientation

The several services that collectively make up the functions of orientation represent efforts by the college to give students information that will help them make effective use of college opportunities. Students need to decide on a college, to decide on a career, to get acquainted with the college they have chosen, and to develop habits that will facilitate growth.

Pre-college information in some of the colleges is supplied by "selling" the inquiring student a catalog and answering his inquiries by form letter. In other colleges a well planned series of group and individual meetings, specially prepared bulletins, individual letters, and receptions on the college campus are used to implement this function. Between these extremes, most of the colleges assign their counselors and admissions officers the job of using publications, meetings, and correspondence to inform in-coming students about their offerings.

Student induction procedures range from one or more days of personalized effort to introduce students to their college, to an impersonal mass registration with emphasis on clerical efficiency. Since most large junior colleges have "open door" admission policies, inductional procedures merge with program advising.

Group orientation procedures most frequently deal with the improvement of educational and vocational planning, instruction in study techniques, and information about college regulations during the first semester. This function was favorably provided in eight of the 12 strongest programs. Eleven of the 12 weakest programs had unfavorable implementations. An illustration of satisfactory implementation is provided in the following interviewer description:

> An orientation class, taught by selected Student Services staff members and faculty members, is required for all day students. The student must complete this course before enrolling for the next semester. The orientation workbook used in the class is geared towards selecting a vocational objective and the world of work. Printed materials within the workbook include a description of various occupations, manpower report of the president, and a self analysis work sheet. It is a well designed attempt to help students evaluate themselves and to select a vocation . . .

The unfavorable responses of interviewers to Group Orienting efforts might be characterized by such observations as the following:

> No orientation provided for all students. There are counseling classes but only for full-time day students, mainly used for class programming. No

> one seems particularly responsible for orientation. No plans for future changes.

Occupational information more properly called career information is a much more restricted activity. Not one of the colleges has a fully adequate program by which selected information about careers is continuously presented to students by a variety of media. Even the better programs have only partial collections of information with some machinery for distribution. The weaker ones do nothing about the service.

An illustration of relatively effective implementation is reported by an interviewer as follows:

> College activity and philosophy is geared to occupational programs. Little attention paid to the liberal arts or transfer function. Through orientation, counseling, advising, and placement procedures the College continually puts emphasis on the world of work and in helping the student make vocational choices. Workbook in orientation class includes description of major occupations, summary of the manpower report of the president, a description of the technician in various occupations in programs offered by the College, and a self analysis sheet to be used for future placement of the student in an occupation.

By contrast, a typical illustration of ineffective implementation was described as follows:

> This function is almost non-existent. No one has been given the responsibility for identifying sources or developing a supply of useful information. One counselor has several pieces of literature in his desk which he uses when appropriate. There's no occupational collection in the college library. The counselors report that the librarian hasn't room for such materials. College catalogues are kept in the library and the supply seems inadequate. Counselors recognize the need for the function but administration apparently doesn't.

Functions of Appraisal

Helping a student to make optimal choices of every kind--occupational, educational and social--depends upon accurate appraisal. All of the colleges visited give some attention to this function.

Applicant appraisal, involving the accumulation and analysis of prior school records, test scores, and health information was found to be a highly variable practice. In many colleges no more was done than to require in-coming students to file a high school transcript. Other colleges have developed complex patterns of student curricular control that relate directly to classifications of students that are based on analysis of records.

According to the ratings of our interviewers, all the strongest programs have effectively implemented the Applicant Appraisal function while none of the weakest programs were judged as effectively implementing this function. A carefully conceived and systematic approach with appropriate use of data seemed to undergird favorable judgments of interviewers as indicated in this description:

> All students are subject to the same admission procedure. Personal data (form), H.S. transcript, and test results are obtained. H.S. grades and test scores are selectively combined into an index. Predictive tables have been derived based on these indices. (Based on a 4.0 grade system), males below 1.30 (predicted) are rejected; above 1.46, accepted; in the intermediate range, an Admissions Committee decides. For females, the range is 1.46-1.71. The admission program is based on a data-backed system. It seems to adequately meet the college needs for mild selectivity. No differentiation, however, is made among curricula.

While some junior college authorities who are staunch advocates of the "open door" policy may object to the denial of admission to some students, one cannot quarrel with systematic efforts to gather data on which to base such judgments if they are to be made.

The absence of system or plan and the inadequate use of supportive data for appraisal of incoming students were characteristic weaknesses of the ineffective program.

Educational testing varies from administering and filing the scores of a single general ability test to the full use of a validated test battery. The most frequent use of tests in the colleges was found to be for student class placement in such subjects as English, mathematics, and science. The research and reporting practices that are essential for fully effective use of tests were found to be lacking in most of the colleges.

Personnel records are necessary tools for helping students make effective choices and for maintaining college standards. Interviewers found that college interest in records was more clerical than professional. Sophistication in the mechanization of record storage and retrieval appeared to be of more concern than actual use of recorded information by counselors and teachers.

Functions of Consultation

Individual consultation with students is usually considered to be the heart of student personnel work. Junior colleges differ greatly in the extent and character of the individual services they provide for their students.

Applicant consulting, the giving of information, interpretation, or advice prior to the admission of the student is a common practice in the junior colleges studied. Most frequently reported was a half hour interview arranged by appointment.

Comparison of implementations of the Applicant Consulting function revealed that 11 of the 12 strongest programs had favorably implemented this function with only one of the weakest programs having a favorable implementation. The contrast is again reflected in the descriptions provided by the interviewers:

> Every new student after being admitted is given an hour appointment with a counselor. During the interview the student's educational and vocational plans are discussed in the light of his past performance, test scores and expressed interests. He is then programmed and scheduled for classes. Curricular guides for a large number of programs serves as information sheets for students and as records in the student's personnel folder. In the registration period for the second semester (Feb.-June) the staff is sometimes too busy to give more than a 30 minute interview. When new full-time students take orientation class they make out their second term program under the counselor's supervision. Part-time students who are not included in the orientation class use curricular guides.

A typical description of ineffective implementation is provided by another interviewer:

> There are not efforts made to encourage applicant consulting. Walk-ins to the Registrar's office are handled by clerks--95% seem satisfied with this treatment (they have only factual questions); the other 5% are seen by the Registrar, who will talk with them about admissions problems. No records are kept of these contacts. The opportunity for counseling is completely missed. The organization pattern prevents any carry-over to S.P. (Student Personnel).

All 12 of the strongest programs had achieved satisfactory implementation of the Student Counseling function while six of the weakest programs had unfavorable implementations. The differences between favorable and unfavorable implementation are illustrated by the following interviewer report:

> Seven full-time counselors and a full-time psychologist provide intensive personal counseling as well as the more usual vocational-educational counseling--all are well prepared generalists. A course in the Basic Studies program for limited ability students taught by counselors--"self-exploration with guidance toward realistic choices." Evening counseling is available every week day. Former philosophy was no faculty referral but faculty now refer on appropriate form--counselors refer to the psychologist and to other agencies. Plenty of tests for their assistance and excellent cooperation from the testing center. Supervision provided for new staff members.

The potential impact upon student development through counseling is considerably less in the following implementation described by one interviewer:

> There are two people on the staff who have professional training in counseling and student personnel work. One has the title of Director of Student Affairs, the other is called a counselor. The Director of Student Affairs also serves as the Dean of Men, and from 3 p.m. on is the head basketball coach. His other duty is manager of the Student Union. The other person, the counselor, has three sections of psychology to teach this term with a total enrollment of 110 students, in addition to his counseling duties. Very little testing is done by the counselor primarily because (1) he doesn't have time, (2) he has to administer and score all tests given himself, (3) he has no place in which students can take tests except at a table in his office. The tests he uses are the Edwards, Strong, and Kuder, whenever he uses any special tests. If an individual ability test is needed he would refer the student to the school psychologist, who is psychologist for the entire city school system.

Student advising, the provision of individual help in the planning of study programs, is also a frequent practice. In a few of the colleges all program advising is provided by full time counselors. In most of them, however, this function is met by faculty advisers. While the student advisory function was not highly significant in distinguishing the strongest and weakest programs, the following description was included because of its reflection of creative efforts to handle an important function of the junior college:

> The student personnel philosophy is to work through the faculty. From among faculty volunteers for advising, the Dean selects those who he feels will be most interested and effective. About 65% of the faculty are advising, with an average of 28 students each. Students are assigned to an adviser in their program area. Advisers receive a $50 stipend for this service and commit themselves to attending a monthly meeting for in-service training. Dean meets with new advisers separately. If an adviser is not doing his job, he can be replaced. Students fill out a questionnaire for evaluation at the end of the year. The system includes student advisers in the same program. The student advisers help arrange adviser meetings and also hold a series of meetings with their advisees during each semester without faculty in attendance. Student advisers must be sophomores, and have a 2.2 cumulative average. They are selected and trained. Twenty-eight of the 31 this fall are still active. The Dean has monthly meetings with them also. Student Government initiated the student adviser program and works with the Dean. Advisers make out interview sheets. They are informed when a counselor is working with a student and they receive pertinent academic and social information about their advisees. Excellent advisory service; an unusually effective answer to many of the problems this function typically encounters.

Functions of Regulation

The promotion of student growth requires the development of standards of expectancy and the reinforcement of individual motivation by college regulations.

Social regulatory functions pertaining to some phases of student conduct were found in each college. Residential colleges had tighter and more extensive controls. Typical commuter colleges and especially Evening Divisions had almost no controls except those relating to classes and parking. Student involvement in either the development or the enforcement of controls was meager.

An unanticipated finding was that the Social Regulatory function differentiated the strongest and weakest programs more than any other function. All twelve of the strongest programs had achieved satisfactory implementations while only three of the weakest had achieved favorable implementations. The following descriptions suggest quite different views regarding the role of student participation in regulating their social life:

> The College has a social code developed and approved by the Student Senate. Social regulations are considered to be firm. The Women's Council revises women's rules each year. A Men's Council has just been started. The Social Activities Committee sets up regulations on use of the "Lodge," a recreational building maintained for parties and other recreation by the Benevolent Association (Student-Faculty Group which collects and disperses special fees) of the college. Social regulations are passed by the student senate and then by the administration. Regulations for women are carefully spelled out in a publication by the Women's Council. All women who live in the dormitories are members of the Women's Council.

The potential educative processes of regulation have been overlooked in the following case:

> No printed policies--policies become clear when there is a problem--policy seems to exist in the Dean.

Academic regulatory controls were fixed parts of the colleges' machinery for holding students to grade standards in every college. The standards themselves varied, the defining authority (usually total college) varied, and the methods of enforcing varied. This function was found to be of growing concern to public community colleges. Particular concern centers in the use of probationary and retention policies, an issue that is not likely to be resolved for quite some time.

Registration was used both as a process of induction and as a control of the student's class program. Most of the colleges emphasized a clerical approach to the function with concern for accuracy and efficiency that was generally impersonal in nature.

Functions of Participation

All of the colleges visited recognize the need of students for personal-social growth and recognize the usefulness of the student culture in effecting such growth. Since most of them are "commuter colleges," both the opportunities and the responsibilities for social involvement are limited. The vigor, creativity, and extent of student involvement varied more from college to college than did the actual pattern of activities undertaken.

Student self-government existed in some form on all of the campuses. In most instances this function took the form of a student council serving as the leadership body for a group of student clubs, and also providing the leadership for a limited program of recreational and entertainment activities for the entire student body. Student involvement in the decision making process related to the educational program was negligible.

Co-curricular activities were found to be closely related to student government. Most interviewers reported the existence of a "typical pattern of athletic, dramatic, musical, forensic, and co-educational entertainment activities."

The weakest programs were about as apt to have favorable Co-curricular Activities as the strongest programs, but this was not the case for the Student Self-Governing function. While there were three favorable implementations of Student Self-Governing among the weakest programs, there were eleven represented among the 12 strongest programs. Typical differences in implementation of the Student Self-Governing function were expressed in the following descriptions of contrasting programs:

> Dean of Men is responsible for the student self-governing function. A student government organization exists for day school and a separate student government exists for the evening school. The emphasis is the intellectual approach to student activities rather than of a social nature. The student government organizations involve themselves in community problems. They have originated one bill which will be submitted to the U. S. Congress soon. This bill concerns monies used to subsidize education. The purpose of this bill is to make such monies tax deductible. The College has excellent facilities for student government activities and has a meeting room designed much like a court room.

> The Dean of Men spends considerable time in.working with students to develop leadership and student involvement in real and valuable community projects.
>
> The Student Council is restricted to social and interest needs of students. Students implement decisions from the administration. They emphasize that it is not student government but the Student Council which regulates clubs and supervises elections. Six hundred students out of 4000 voted in fall elections. Students feel administration is too afraid of public relations and afraid students will make mistakes. These students would assume some real responsibility if the administration would let them. Student activities are not a broad avenue for learning.

The potentialities for providing creative experiences of citizenship are readily apparent in the first illustration but lacking in the second.

Functions of Service

Student personnel services that assist students to meet the costs of college education were concerns of all of the colleges. Practices varied with the size and type of college and with the character of the supportive community, but in all cases the college effort was in the direction of helping students to help themselves.

Graduate placement was a strongly implemented function in a few colleges, and an identified student personnel concern in most of the colleges. In practice the job placement service gave attention to part-time employment for active students as well as full-time job placement for graduates. Only a few colleges had fully staffed placement offices. Most of them linked this function to college officers with other duties. A number of colleges effected this service by an organized relationship with public employment services.

Financial assisting in most colleges took the direction of helping students find part-time employment rather than in giving either loans or direct grants. Each college, however, had secured some funds and had established some procedures for selective financial aid to needy students. Active efforts at money raising for this purpose were rare.

While two of the strongest programs had failed to provide satisfactory Financial Assistance, 10 of these programs had achieved satisfactory implementations. A favorable implementation was described as follows:

> Extensive aid provided by private solicitation and NDEA. Fifty community organizations represented in contributions to loan, employment of scholarship programs. Available to day students primarily. Administered by Directors of Women's Activities for both boys and girls. Participates in NDEA loan program. $45,000 available. Both Dean of Men and Dean of Women work in employment. Student must have at least 2.0 to be eligible for loans or employment. Need is major criteria along with scholastic standing. Criteria well stated to students. School district makes work grants available for on-campus or district work. Faculty is involved by recommendations for students for on-campus employment. Most part-time employment is on-campus. Excellent support from college and community.

The weaker student personnel programs apparently give very limited attention to this function. An assumption that having little or no tuition for admission to the college obviates the need to provide financial assistance was observed in several institutions. This judgment is not usually substantiated, however, by any institutional studies of the financial needs of students attending these colleges.

Functions of Organization

The cluster of services that attempt--through articulation, evaluation, training, and effective organization--to improve the student personnel program as a whole are extremely important. Unfortunately, most of them are deferrable and get postponed when they come into competition with immediate demands for time and resources.

In their study of the selected colleges, interviewers found that student personnel officers agreed that these integrative functions were important but that their implementation was insufficient.

Program _articulating_ varied in quality. Some colleges had developed adequate articulation of counseling, advising, college regulations, and student activities to achieve a reinforcing press toward excellence in their on-campus activities, but lacked articulating programs with earlier and later schools. Other colleges had imbalances of other kinds.

Student _personnel_ _evaluation_ activities were also highly variable. A few colleges make regular analyses of test scores and make use of their analyses in their handling of students. Numerous colleges have made occasional sampling studies of the effects of various factors upon course grades. A few colleges have well developed practices in the follow-up of their students after transfer to senior colleges. The reports of interviewers give examples of other specific developments. On the whole, however, evaluation receives very limited implementation.

In-service education is sometimes focused on upgrading of the student personnel workers themselves. In other colleges most attention is given to the training of faculty advisers in such matters as test interpretation, college policies, requirements of various majors and other necessary information. Not one of the colleges claimed to be doing an effective job of in-service education in each aspect of student personnel work.

One of the most favorable in-service programs was described as follows:

> Meetings of counseling staff scheduled at regular intervals (weekly). Occasionally hold "retreats" of counseling staff off campus for one day. Annual conferences with representative of four-year institutions where most students transfer. College has sponsored counselor's attendance at workshops for Junior College Counselors held for three summers at a state college. Each department chairman invited to meet with counselors each year.

The unsatisfactory implementations were characterized by occasional meetings to inform the faculty of new procedures--an implementation which is something less than in-service education.

Administrative organization in the colleges studied was reported by the interviewers more in terms of the existing pattern of personnel relationships than in terms of the activities necessary for the development of staff. It was surprising how many of the colleges were in a state of transition in their administrative organization. The traditional hierarchy in which one second level administrative officer has responsibility for all of the student personnel services and activities is found in no more than half of the colleges. The many variations from this pattern suggest that local expediencies rather than an organizing philosophy are the determining factors.

Among the more favorable descriptions was the following:

> Student personnel services have direct representation at the level of the Board of Trustees through the V.P. of Student Personnel who is also an Assistant Superintendent. The student personnel staff has both the responsibility and the authority to accomplish the functions of counseling, advising, registration, record keeping and student activities including athletics. Internal staff meetings, meeting with entire college staff, publications, and announcements are used to maintain communication. Student personnel is represented on each total college committee.

This illustration can be readily differentiated from the following description of an inadequate implementation:

> No planned organization. Responsibility for Student Personnel functions are divided between many people. The Director of the College maintains close major responsibility for hiring staff and preparing budget for Student Personnel Services.

Summary

The reader can readily identify the considerable distances between the strongest and the weakest student personnel programs in this study. It is hoped that the contrasting illustrations have highlighted the variations in imagination, attention, leadership and resources which characterize the stronger and the weaker programs. The writers believe that the descriptions provided by the interviewers not only reflect the frame of reference on which their judgments were based but also provide increased confidence in the validity of their quantitative judgments of scope and quality of implementation which undergird the statistical analysis of the data.

SIGNIFICANCE OF SELECTED VARIABLES IN DIFFERENTIATING STRONG AND WEAK PROGRAMS

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The relationship of selected variables to effective implementation of each function was previously reviewed, but while this analysis indicated how the variables are related to specific functions, it did not depict the more global relationships of variables to the student personnel program as a whole.

Developmental Variables Provide Clues to Programming Successes.

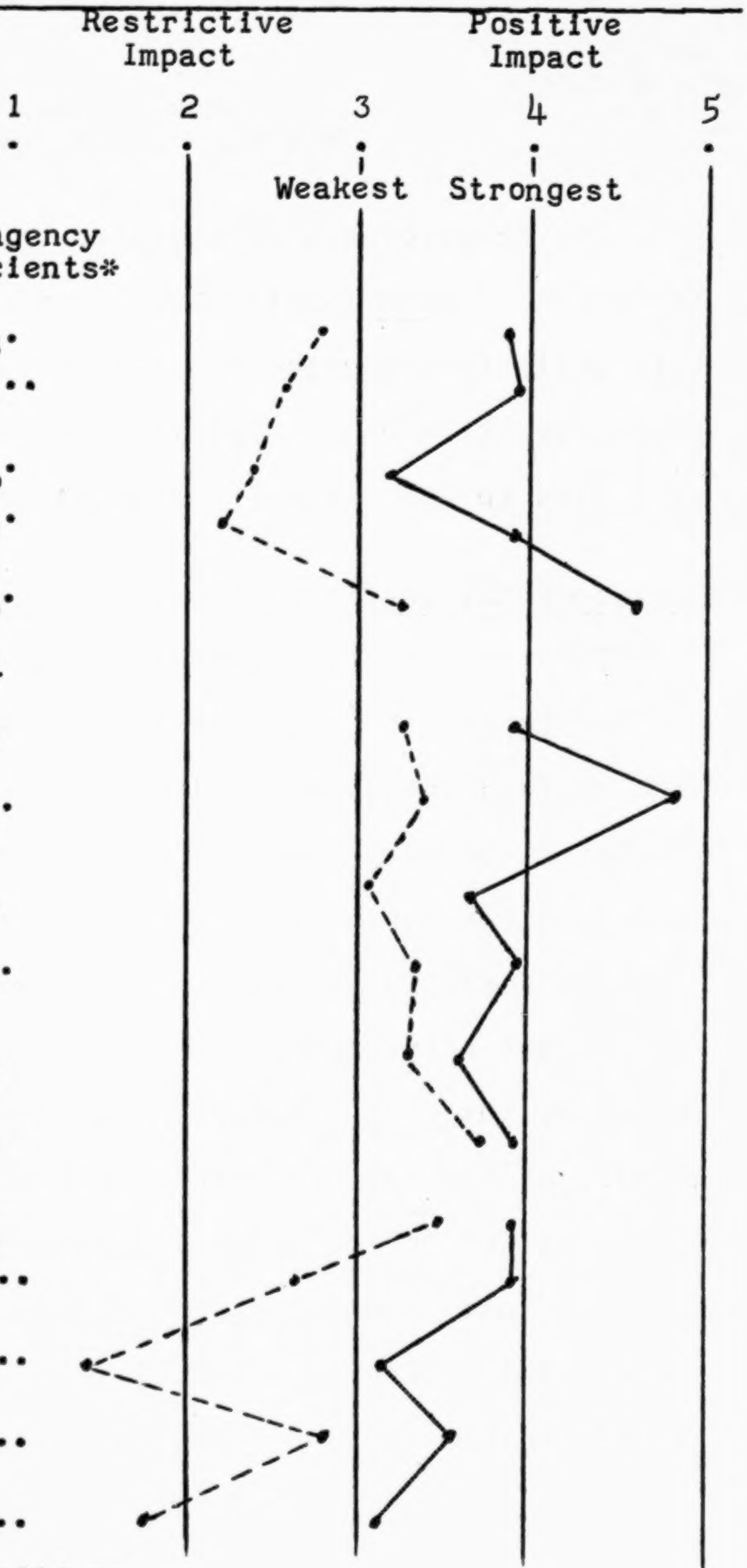
To study the relationship between the strength of programs and the impact of developmental characteristics, the colleges were divided into the top 12, middle 25, and bottom 12, while the impact of developmental characteristics was classified as positive, equally balanced, or restrictive. This done, a statistical analysis was made to discover whether a relationship was present between the two variables. Table 1 indicates the extent of the relationship for each of the 15 variables studied as well as the type of impact each of these variables has on the strongest and on the weakest programs.

The most significant and highly related variables were equipment, in-service training, workable ideas and concepts, identification of supportive data to support development, and

Table 1

A Comparison of Estimated Impact of Selected Developmental Characteristics Among the Strongest and Weakest Programs

Developmental Factors	Contingency Coefficients*
I. Resource Variables	
A. Physical Facilities	.43·
B. Equipment	.61··
C. Clerical Assistance	.46·
D. Staff Size	.43·
E. Staff Competencies	.36·
II. Unification Variables	
A. Goal Congruence	.40
B. Admin. Support	.41·
C. Faculty Support	.24
D. Student Response	.42·
E. Staff Cohesiveness	.24
F. Staff Holding Power	.36
III. Leadership Variables	
A. Goal Clarity	.28
B. Role Clarity	.50··
C. In-Service Training	.54··
D. Ideas and Concepts	.53··
E. Supportive Data	.52··



* . 5 per cent level of confidence
.. 1 per cent level of confidence

clarity of staff roles. With the exception of equipment all of these factors might be viewed as related to effective professional leadership.

Those variables showing a marked relationship to adequate development were clerical resources, size of staff, physical facilities, student response, and administrative support. Here we can observe the positive relationship of adequate physical and personnel resources along with student and administrative responsiveness to the program as correlates of effective program development.

By using rational processes to categorize the variables, it can be noted that resource variables and leadership variables are more strongly related to programming than unification variables. In fact, one might hypothesize that intelligent and conscientious efforts to increase resources and strengthen leadership might have positive effects upon program unification variables.

Staff Qualifications in Strong and Weak Programs

Richards, Rand and Rand (1965) recently completed a factor analysis of 36 institutional characteristics by which junior colleges can be compared. He found that these 36 institutional characteristics could be reduced to six factors which he titled Cultural Affluence, Technological Specialization, Size, Age, Transfer Emphasis, and Business Orientation and which are different from the factors descriptive of four-year colleges.

Richards responded to our request to study the top 12 colleges, the middle 25, and the lowest 12 in our sample of 49 large junior colleges in a similar manner. A graphic comparison and a description of the factors are presented in Appendix L.

The factor of size was the only significant one in differentiating the institutions with the strongest and the weakest programs. Larger colleges tend to have stronger student personnel programs than smaller colleges. A tendency for colleges with weaker programs to be more traditionally and transfer oriented was also noted. While the latter finding was not significant statistically, it suggests leads for later study.

These results emphasize the importance of controlling the factor of size of institution in comparing the qualifications of staff members from stronger and weaker programs. The largest institutions tend to have disproportionate numbers (not necessarily ratios) of counselors who are likely to have more professional training in student personnel work as well as cognate areas than do staff members holding other student personnel positions (e.g. registrars, admissions officers, student activity directors).

General Administrators Are More Active in Weaker Programs.

Because of the influence of size in adequacy of program development, the factor of size was controlled in matching upper ranked and lower ranked programs. Fourteen matched pairs were thus identified.

Twelve of the respondents in weaker programs were classified by title as administrative (in non-student personnel areas) while only one respondent was so classified in stronger programs. This participation by general administrative personnel may reflect a number of things such as their interest in student personnel work, or a tendency to maintain close control over the student personnel program, or a hesitancy to delegate authority to the student personnel administrator, or the absence of a centralized student personnel program. Considering the earlier finding that a lack of clarity of staff roles was more characteristic of weak programs than strong programs, it would suggest that general administrators who insist on classifying themselves as student personnel workers may unintentionally impair the development of the program through failure to delegate the responsibility adequately.

Deployment of Student Personnel Workers Was Not Significantly Different.

For the sake of increased control of extraneous factors in comparisons of staff qualifications, the 13 general college administrators were removed from the sample. This reduction produced 87 respondents from 14 strong programs and 75 respondents from 14 weak programs for comparative purposes. The distribution of staffing assignments were not significantly different. (See Appendix M Table I.)

Having determined that respondents were holding similar positions, attention was directed to various staff characteristics.

Sources of Student Personnel Staff Are About the Same.

Examination of previous employment revealed that the two groups did not differ significantly in previous assignments. (See Table II Appendix M.) There was a slight tendency for student personnel workers in weaker programs to be recruited more frequently from teaching and administrative positions (52%) and less frequently from student personnel positions (34.6%) than was the case in the stronger programs (44.8% and 43.6% respectively).

Professional Identity and Involvement Is Stronger in Better Programs.

There was a significant difference between the per cent of respondents in the stronger programs (80%) who identified themselves as professional student personnel workers as compared with the per cent in the weaker programs (65%). (See Table III Appendix M.)

Concern for professional development was partially reflected by the extent to which staff members participated in student personnel workshops offered by graduate training institutions. While more than half the members in both groups had not attended any student personnel workshops, the percentage of respondents from stronger programs (42%) compared to the 28% from the weaker programs suggested a more prevalent concern (and perhaps opportunity) for professional improvement within the stronger programs. (See Table III Appendix M.)

Graduate Levels and Degree Titles Reveal No Significant Differences.

Examination of the level and nature of graduate training revealed no significant differences between the two groups (Table V Appendix M). Fifty-eight per cent of the 87 staff members from stronger colleges had taken course work beyond the Master's level while 52 per cent of the 75 respondents from weaker programs had done so. It was also noted that respondents from stronger programs were more likely to have majored in student personnel work in their highest degree while cognate fields were more characteristic of staff members from weaker programs. Again the difference of about 8 per cent was not statistically significant.

A 30-Hour Minimum in Student Personnel Credits Does Make a Difference.

Sixty-three per cent of the staff members from stronger colleges had more than 30 hours of such credits while only 51 per cent from the weaker programs had achieved this level of professional training. Upon statistical analysis this difference proved to be significant.

Significant Differences in Course Areas Are Apparent.

Analysis of the relationship between strength of the program and the extent to which the respondents had taken specific types of courses thought to be valuable to student personnel workers gave results generally indicative of the value of professional education. Respondents from strong programs were more apt than were respondents from weak programs to have had more course work in counseling, clinical testing, educational testing, group guidance, and occupational information. No difference between the groups was found in the extent to which they had course in other student personnel work, research, or junior college education.

Conclusions

1. Basic Student Personnel Functions for the Junior College Are Definable, Recognizable, Acceptable to Experts, and Verified by Practice in the Field.

While this conclusion might have seemed obvious prior to this study, such was not the case. Terminology has become intertwined with various administrative and organizational patterns. Consequently, terms such as "admissions program," "guidance program," "placement program," "advisory program," have incorporated a variety of functions and activities which are not the same from one college to another. For example, the Applicant Consulting function might be classified as a part of the guidance program in one college, the admissions program in another, and the registration program in still another. While a rationale may be logically developed in all three instances, the semantic problem in communication among institutions has remained. By concentrating on functional definitions (clusters of related activities) rather than organizational terminologies, it was possible to define and communicate the types of related activities carried on by those involved in junior college student personnel work.

Analysis revealed that the 21 functions could not be effectively reduced to a fewer number at this time. While later refinements will undoubtedly increase the clarity of the defined functions, the results of this first step were regarded as a significant accomplishment.

2. Basic Student Personnel Functions Are Not Adequately Provided in the Majority of Junior Colleges.

The appraisals provided by the project interviewers indicated that the median number of favorably implemented functions was 10. Since the 21 functions studied were all considered basic, this level of implementation seems grossly unsatisfactory. Even the strongest programs were experiencing considerable difficulty in implementing key coordinative and integrative functions. The up-grading functions were at the bottom of the list in effectiveness.

When one realizes that less than one-half of the junior colleges have adequate Student Counseling, he must accept the uncomfortable fact that the majority of approximately 500,000 students attending those colleges are being deprived of adequate opportunities for counseling at a crucial period in their lives. Not only are these students receiving sub par assistance in critical areas, but with the discouraging state of important coordinating and upgrading functions, this situation will likely worsen during a period of extensive expansion in enrollments.

3. Administrative Classification of Functions Is Not Related to Adequacy of Implementation.

While the predominant pattern among large colleges was to classify the basic functions as "student personnel" or as "student personnel related," such classification was not related to the adequacy with which they were implemented.

There were indications in the interviewer reports, however, that colleges which provided professional and centralized direction achieved better implementation and integration of functions into a unified program. This may be an indirect consequence of an institutional climate that reflects concern for students by mobilizing its resources to meet student needs.

4. Positive Manipulation of Selected Developmental Characteristics Is Likely to Enhance Implementation of Adequate Student Personnel Programs.

By far the most dramatic relationships to effectiveness were found in the investigation of the selected developmental characteristics. While causation cannot be established in a "correlational" study such as this, the data strongly suggests that positive manipulation of developmental characteristics would result in improved programs. Several characteristics differentiated effective implementations from inadequate implementations and differentiated the strongest student personnel programs from the weakest programs.

a. Support from administration. It is unlikely that any college program can thrive without the support of top leaders. Direct relationships were established between the degree of this support and the effectiveness with which student personnel programs were developed.

b. Clarity of staff roles. No other developmental characteristic was associated with performance in so many areas. The data clearly suggest that effectiveness is associated with unambiguous understandings of one's professional responsibilities. Programs which lack this clarity and directional quality are not likely to be very effective. The quality itself is probably a direct reflection of leadership in the total college as well as in the student personnel division. Indirectly, it may also reflect an inadequate number of staff members to whom responsibilities can be realistically delegated.

c. Faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies. In abbreviated form, the findings suggest that the college which knows what it wants to do and employs a faculty which endorses these goals produces a climate favorable to the development of effective student personnel programs.

d. Identification of supporting data to stimulate development. Programs in which efforts have been made to collect relevant facts about students fare better than programs which have little information or concern for collecting it.

e. Equipment. While equipment as a developmental characteristic seems related to the effectiveness of only three of the separate functions, it was a highly significant characteristic in distinguishing the strongest and weakest student personnel programs. Among the items included in equipment would be such things as data processing equipment, office furnishings, testing supplies, recreational equipment, and student center furnishings. Since the size of the institution was identified by Richards as the only institution factor differentiating strong and weak programs, it is quite possible that equipment is a correlate of the size factor. Said another way, the larger institutions are more apt to be affluent in furnishings than many of the smaller institutions. Regardless of the possible explanations the presence of adequate equipment can be viewed as tangible evidence of a concern for adequate programming.

f. Workable ideas and concepts. This characteristic reflects the presence or absence of creative and practical efforts to implement functions and resolve problems. Undoubtedly, it is related to creative and stimulating leadership that capitalizes on the ingenuity of the staff and the students. It was found to be significantly related to only one of the basic functions (Social Regulatory) and yet in identifying strong and weak programs, this function was found to be more discriminating than any other function. Since the interviewers stressed (in addition to clearly stated policies and regulations) the presence or absence of constructive involvement of students in the development of social regulations, it seems likely that stronger programs demonstrate awareness of the educative potentialities of student participation and involvement. Hence, this becomes a practical and creative method of providing learning experiences for students in the stronger programs and probably a policing and restraining concern in weaker programs.

g. In-Service training. It was not surprising that in-service training appeared as a characteristic which differentiated the strong and the weak programs. Only about one out of 10 colleges in the entire study had developed adequate in-service training programs and all of these implementations were found in the strongest programs. This does not mean, however, that a sudden infusion of in-service training programs in an institution with a poorly developed program and with limited professional staff can transform the program. Training for training's sake is no remedy. Rather, a well developed in-service training is probably an out-growth of a felt need of staff members to improve their skills, to keep up with new developments, procedures, and knowledge and to search for evidences of strength and weakness in programming.

5. Institutions Having Favorable Climatal Conditions Which Then Seek and Attract Professionally Trained Student Personnel Workers Develop the Most Favorable Student Personnel Programs.

The data do not support the conclusion that hiring a large staff of professional student personnel workers will immediately produce an effective student personnel program. There are too many institutional and personal variables involved. At the same time, the institution which has a climate supportive of student personnel philosophy and also has a well defined sense of direction will find its efforts to attain excellence enhanced by employing professionally trained personnel workers. Evidence regarding professional preparation and development suggested that strong programs were staffed with better trained personnel than weak programs.

It is probable that the importance of professional preparation will be most apparent in colleges whose institutional climates support an educational philosophy dedicated to serving student needs.

References

Richards, J. M., Jr., Rand, Lorraine M., and Rand, L. P. A Description of Junior Colleges. ACT Research Report No. 5. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1965.

APPRAISAL OF EXISTING AND POTENTIAL RESOURCES FOR THE PREPARATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL SPECIALISTS

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Out of classroom services have been an accepted part of higher education since the establishment of collegiate level institutions in the United States. Their presence on the college or university campus grew, in part, out of concern for students' manners and morals, especially with regard to students who resided on the campus. Most of these services were related to housing and discipline with some concern for extra-curricular activities. While there were some earlier indications of broadening concern for the student, organized programs of services were given further impetus and increased scope with the development of guidance services in the secondary school.

Student personnel services have steadily advanced in scope and importance in educational institutions in the United States from the secondary level upward. The early providers of these services had no special preparation for their tasks but must have had qualities which today are still considered essential for the professional student personnel specialists, namely, respect for the individual and sensitivity to human needs. From the work of these pioneers has come the intricate, extensive programs of services found in our educational institutions today. These demand a high level of professional skill and knowledge.

The junior college, appearing on the educational scene as early as 1900, experienced its most significant growth and development at a time when student personnel services had become an accepted part of a college or high school program, although their dimensions had not been defined to the unanimous agreement of all concerned. The smaller, private junior college, which frequently included resident living facilities, adopted the general patterns of student personnel services established by four-year institutions of higher education. Student personnel services in "community type" public junior colleges developed somewhat differently, although "guidance" has been stressed as an important function of these institutions since their inception.

The contribution which adequate student personnel services can make to the achievement of the broad, over-all objectives of the junior college is obvious to those who are familiar with the nature and problems of this segment of American education. As college attendance becomes more extensive. and a broader cross-section of the population remains in formal educative programs over a longer period of time, the responsibility of the junior college to provide assistance to students in making appropriate decisions grows in significance. At the same time, the obligation to provide opportunity for a variety of experience, outside the classroom as well as in, which will be meaningful to each student becomes more difficult to meet. Student personnel specialists, well-prepared to meet the complexities and exigencies of their jobs, are essential if the junior college is to realize its potential to the degree that society has every right to expect. It is appropriate, therefore, to explore the resources presently available for the preparation of such specialists and to investigate the potential resources which could be developed in the future.

The idea that special preparation was desirable for those who were to assume responsibility for providing student personnel services did not develop as rapidly or extensively as did the acceptance of such services as an integral part of the college program. The teacher who "liked students," or was willing to accept the assignment (which frequently was imposed on top of a full-time teaching program) volunteered or was invited to participate in the student personnel functions.

While special programs of preparation have been available since the 1920's, only a small proportion of the persons engaged in providing student personnel services at all levels of education have been enrolled in these programs. Even today the necessity of professional preparation for student personnel work is not accepted by many in higher education. However, anyone active in professional counseling and student personnel organizations or familiar with the current literature in this area knows that there is great concern and much discussion concerning the nature and dimensions of experiential and educational backgrounds most likely to produce competent student personnel specialists.

The complexities of the problems now being considered are inherent in the many-faceted functions which might be collectively described as student personnel services. The discovery and description of programs of preparation are difficult because of the variation in the way in which the term "student personnel" is used. In attempting to explore the existing programs of preparation for junior college student personnel specialists, the term "student personnel" was defined in broad terms in order to avoid emphasis on only one or two functions. Organized curricula for the professional preparation of student personnel specialists are, of course, related to the rapid rise of the extent and kind of student services provided by secondary and higher educational institutions. The impact on programs of preparation of state certification of public school student personnel workers needs to be explored. It is assumed that in states where certification is mandatory for service in public schools, the programs of professional preparation are shaped by certification requirements.

The counseling services provided under Public Law 346 and Public Law 16 immediately following World War II, followed by the legislation continuing these services for veterans of Korean service and their children, followed still later by the National Defense Education Act establishing several programs related to counseling and counselor preparation, have served to make "counseling" a household word and an educational "necessity." In fact, the emphasis on counseling and counselor preparation has served almost to eclipse concern for the preparation of other student personnel specialists which have not been the object of government subsidy or public spotlight. The net result in the colleges and universities has been an emphasis on programs designed for counselor preparation and, if not a de-emphasis, at least no broad expansion of programs designed to prepare professional workers in other student personnel functions.

The names of colleges and universities considered to be possible sources of information regarding formal or informal programs designed to prepare junior college student personnel workers were selected from the following sources:

> Preparation in School and College Personnel Work, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, USGPO, 1965.
>
> "A Guide to Programs of Training for College and University Student Service and Personnel Workers," by Thomas A. Emmet, Number Six, University of Detroit Studies in Higher Education for College and University Student Personnel Workers, January, 1965.
>
> The Professional Preparation of Counseling Psychologists, Albert S. Thompson and Donald E. Super, editors, Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

A list of 106 institutions was prepared, all of which purported to offer graduate level preparation in the area of college student personnel services or in counseling psychology. The amount of work offered ranged from a course or two to an organized curriculum leading to a specialist's and/or doctor's degree. The administrative placement of the courses or programs varied among departments of guidance or student services, departments of higher education, departments of school or college administration, departments of education and departments of psychology.

Letters were sent to each college or university addressed to the person in charge of the program as listed in the Preparation in School and College Personnel Work. Responses to the following questions were requested:

1. If a prospective student were to indicate his intention to prepare for student personnel work in a junior college, what program of preparation would you recommend?
2. What area of study would you consider most important for the student personnel workers in the junior college (as compared with high school or four-year senior college)?
3. Are there any areas of study or courses which should be added to your present institutions curriculum in order to prepare the junior college workers?
4. Please describe briefly what you consider to be the essential practicum or field work experiences for this student.
5. To what extent do you believe that all student personnel workers need training in counseling?

Replies were received from 61 institutions, or 58 per cent of the total. While a larger percentage of response would have been welcome, it is believed that the information received is representative. Visits were made then to eight colleges and universities where some special programs or courses for junior college student personnel workers were offered or where interest was expressed in the development of such a program. Limitations of time and budget did not permit as extensive a schedule of visits of colleges and universities as might have been desirable. The information obtained from the replies to the letter of inquiry and from campus visits reflects, at least in general terms, the existing situations and the major problems faced in the professional preparation of junior college student personnel specialists.

Responses to the Letter of Inquiry

Because the questions were part of a personal letter rather than a structured questionnaire, a statistical analysis of the replies is inappropriate. Some respondents failed to refer specifically to one or more of the questions but rather engaged in more generalized discussions of the issues raised. The following observations are based on the letters received:

Question 1: (Regarding recommended programs of preparation)

a. About one-third of the respondents described counselor education programs designed for public school counselors without reference to any needed or desirable adaptation of the program for the junior college student personnel worker.

b. Approximately one-fifth described counselor education programs designed for public school counselors but also indicated the addition or substitution of courses directed specifically to work in higher education (not specifically junior college).

c. Slightly fewer than one-fifth described programs especially designed for student personnel workers in higher education (without reference to junior colleges as a special segment of higher education).

d. Five institutions described programs designed primarily to prepare student personnel administrators in institutions of higher education.

e. Six institutions described either counselor education or student personnel work preparation with specific adaptations to the special needs of those interested in working in the junior college.

f. One institution described a program of preparation for counseling psychologists.

Question 2: (Areas of greatest importance)

Two-thirds of all the respondents made some classifiable statement regarding this question. Of these, almost one-half (or about one-third of the total number of respondents) expressed the opinion that there was little or no difference in the emphasis recommended for junior college student personnel workers and the emphasis for those for whom the program was originally designed (either public school counselors or higher education student personnel). Where differences in emphasis were suggested, need for knowledge of the philosophy and function of the junior college, and more preparation in vocational counseling and occupational information were the most frequently mentioned.

Question 3: (Added courses or areas of study)

Slightly more than 70 per cent of the total respondents commented on the need to add courses to their curriculum if they were to undertake the preparation of junior college student personnel specialists on any appreciable scale. Of these, 54 per cent (or about 40 per cent of the total respondents) expressed no need for the addition of courses in any area. Of those who recommended additions to their curriculum, about one-half suggested additions in the general areas of sociology, administration and higher education.

Question 4: (Essential practicum or field work experiences)

Only one-third stated specifically that it was essential that the practicum and/or field work or internship be in a junior college setting. The remaining two-thirds either made no statement at all or were of the opinion that a practicum in a four-year college setting would be satisfactory. The necessity of having practicum or field work experience in a junior college setting is not generally recognized.

Question 5: (Should all student personnel workers be trained in counseling?)

The highest percentage of agreement in the responses to any of the questions was found here. Almost 90 per cent of those commenting on this question (70 per cent of the total respondents) stated unequivocally that knowledge of counseling was essential in the preparation of all student personnel workers. There was some variation in opinion about the proportion of the program which should be devoted to counseling courses, but there was no doubt as to the importance attributed to at least a minimal knowledge of counseling. Only one respondent stated that he considers such positions as admissions officers, housing officers, dormitory counselors, etc., as clerical-administrative in nature, and therefore, not related to counseling.

Visits to the Colleges and Universities

The information obtained during the visits to the campuses where counselor education and/or student personnel training is taking place largely supported the evidence from the written replies to the questions. Effort was made to investigate or make observation in reference to the following areas: facilities, curriculum, staff, coordination with related departments, practicum or field work settings. The following general observations may be made:

1. Facilities. The special needs of counselor education in this area, e.g. one-way vision rooms, observation rooms, electronic recording and play-back devices, etc., are adequate and in some cases, outstanding. Counselor educators appear to be well aware of needs in this area and to be constantly searching for means of extending and improving existing facilities and their use. While educational facilities for training are subject to the same pressures as in other academic areas, there appear to be no special needs or shortcomings related to the purview of this investigation.

2. Curriculum. No evidence showed that concentrated attention has been given to consideration of special curriculum problems which have arisen or might be expected to arise out of

the task of preparing junior college student personnel workers. This is probably due to the fact that there has been limited acceptance of this task as a part of the objectives of counselor education. Much attention has been given to the problems of education of the secondary school counselor and recently there has been considerable discussion of the nature of professional preparation in college student personnel work. But there has been little constructive dialogue between the groups identified with each of these areas and any special problems posed by work in the junior college setting have been largely ignored or overlooked. Except for a few sporadic instances, the curricula designed for the preparation of secondary counselors and four-year college student personnel workers do not reflect an awareness or understanding of the functions of the junior college in the total educational system nor a recognition of any special needs which the junior college student personnel workers (including counselors) might encounter by virtue of the unique qualities of the junior college.

3. Staff. Whatever problems may exist in the preparation of junior college student personnel specialists, an important key to their resolution lies in obtaining adequate staff to do the job. Among the present faculties in the area of counselor education and of preparation of higher education student personnel specialists, there is a serious shortage of persons who have had experience in student personnel work in junior colleges or who even have a well-founded understanding and acceptance of the

role of the junior college in the American educational system. The practical experience of counselor educators is likely to have been in elementary or secondary schools, not in junior colleges. Those engaged in the preparation of college student personnel workers are likely to have had their practical experience in four-year college student personnel administrative positions. Even if the present counselor or student personnel educator were sensitive to this gap in his background, it would not be easy to compensate for it without expenditure of considerable time and effort. In all probability this accounts for the fact that the overwhelming majority of professionally trained student personnel workers, including counselors, now employed in junior colleges have had little or no reference in their professional preparation to the setting in which they are now employed. On the basis of the information obtained through correspondence and observation it appears that staffing problems present a real hindrance to the development of programs of preparation for junior college student personnel specialists.

4. Coordination with related departments. It is difficult to make any valid generalizations because the situation existing in each college or university is to a great extent a function of personal relationships, historical development, and college policy and organization. The cross-disciplinary approach to counselor education is receiving increasing support and attention. The contribution of sociology, anthropology, economics and other disciplines from the behavioral sciences is increasingly sought

by those responsible for counselor education curricula. In the planning of programs of preparation for student personnel workers in higher education, in addition to the behavioral scientists, the participation of representatives of business management, administration and finance is frequently sought. Problems which arise may come largely from inadequate planning, coordination and communication between the various units (departments, schools) involved. It would be impossible and unwise to evaluate the relationships which exist on the campuses visited on the basis of such brief observation and limited knowledge. The importance of these relationships in establishing good programs of preparation will be discussed later.

5. Practicum setting. It is a generally established principle in counselor education that students should have an opportunity to "practice" in a setting which contains the essential elements of the work setting. On the campuses visited, the majority of students were ostensibly preparing to work in a high school setting and their practicum experience was planned either to take place in a high school or with high school students. If the graduate students in a counselor preparation program had made a definite decision to seek employment in a junior college and a junior college was conveniently available, the practicum was frequently scheduled at the junior college. However, there is a tendency on the part of the practicum supervisors to equate the junior college student body with the freshmen-sophomore students at a four-year college. This results in some cases in the junior

college-bound counselor being sent to the college or university counseling center for his practicum experience. It was apparently believed that as long as the age of these students is similar to those in the junior college, the practicum experience would be adequate. The differences between junior college and four-year college student populations and their significance for the counselor, as well as the differences in the roles of the junior college counselor and the counselor in the typical college or university counseling center are apparently overlooked or considered sufficiently unimportant to warrant the establishment of practicum or field work experience in a junior college.

In the organized programs of preparation for student personnel work in higher education, the role of the practicum has been less clearly defined. The primary emphasis in the past has been in the area of housing with some graduate programs including more comprehensive experiences in a variety of student personnel functions. This field work or practicum usually occurs on the campus where the graduate study is undertaken. Instances where students preparing for junior college student personnel work (other than counseling) had practicum or field work experience in a junior college are extremely rare.

The evidence reveals that, with very few exceptions, little is being attempted in the area of specific preparation for junior college student personnel specialists. Yet, it is equally obvious that junior colleges are filling their student personnel positions each year and have been doing so for many years in the past. While not all of those selected to fill these positions have had any professional preparation, a good percentage have had some kind of program of courses in the areas of either guidance, counseling, or student personnel work. Whatever preparation has been obtained has been predominantly directed toward secondary guidance, four-year college student personnel work or counseling psychology. It is not intended here to evaluate the quality of the work being performed by these individuals; or to question their capacity to learn on the job and thereby achieve a high level of proficiency; but it is appropriate to wonder whether they have been provided with the kind of preparation which would be most beneficial to them in their capacity as junior college student personnel specialists. In other words, have they been given "their money's worth" by the institutions in which they have pursued their graduate training?

In attempting to appraise and evaluate the present and potential resources for the preparation of junior college student personnel specialists, a number of issues arise which need to be considered before any meaningful generalizations or recommendations can be made.

1. Need or Desirability of Specificity of Preparation in Junior College Student Personnel Work.

The question most frequently asked by both counselors and student personnel workers is, "Do junior college student personnel workers really need programs of preparation which are specifically designed for them or will a more generalized program suffice?"

One answer to this question is that to the extent that the junior college as a segment of education has unique qualities growing out of special goals and objectives, the most effective programs of preparation for student personnel workers will take cognizance of those unique aspects and their implications. This would apply equally to teaching and administration. It should not be inferred from this that there is no commonality or overlap between these functions as they are performed at various educational levels and settings, but to omit almost entirely from the content of preparation programs any reference to the junior college and its characteristics and problems does not provide the best possible preparation of well-qualified professional persons to serve in the junior college.

The unique qualities of the junior colleges have been well described in the literature. The implications of these for the student personnel functions can be discussed briefly.

The role of the junior college as an avenue of opportunity for continuing education beyond the high school level means that the open door policy (or something very close to it) must be maintained if the function is to be implemented. Any selective admission procedures which lead to the limitation of educational opportunity for any who seek it will belie the effective realization of this role. When the junior college as a segment of the educational system assumes the responsibility of extending educational opportunity to a large percentage of the total population, the implications for student personnel services are great. Not only will the numbers of students increase as such a policy is implemented, but more significant for student personnel specialists the variety of characteristics represented in the student population will increase greatly. This, in turn, means that a great diversity of curricular offerings must be presented in order to meet the variety of needs represented in the diverse student population. The problem of choice then arises. The students who come to the junior college must be given all possible assistance in selecting the curriculum which is most likely to enable them to maximize the value of the opportunity for further education provided to them. This has been referred to as the "distributive" function and some consider it the central mission of the junior college. If this be so, the major responsibility for implementing it must be assumed by those in the junior college most skilled and knowledgeable in the decision-making process, namely, the counselors and other professional members of the student personnel staff. The entire student personnel services must be geared to the level and needs of the junior college student population with whatever dimensions it may possess. There are few, if any, four-year colleges which claim to provide counseling and guidance services to all students as part of their publicized goals and objectives; yet the catalogs of the majority of junior colleges include a statement to this effect. In summary, the sources of differences between the junior college and the four-year college which are sufficiently important to warrant special attention in any training program designed to prepare persons to assume responsibility as counselors or student personnel specialists in the junior college can be summarized as follows:

a. The "opportunity" function of the junior college which if realized will bring an increasing proportion of the population to the junior college seeking educative experiences of some kind.

b. The broad range of individual differences, both intellective and non-intellective, which are represented in a student population from a broadening cross-section of the total population.

c. The variety of curricular offerings which must be provided if the needs of a widely diverse student population are to be met.

d. The declared responsibility to provide counseling and guidance services for all students in order that each may realize as great as possible a return from the investment in educational opportunity.

2. Should Programs of Preparation Be Designed for the Generalist or the Specialist in Student Personnel Work?

If the assumption can be accepted that programs of preparation for junior college service would be improved by the inclusion of content having direct reference to the junior college, the question arises toward what student personnel functions should the training programs be directed. Another approach to this question might be in terms of whether the program should be designed to prepare the generalist in student personnel services or specialists in a number of specific areas. No clear cut, definitive, widely accepted answer to this question has as yet evolved from the discussions now in progress and, in fact, perhaps there is no single answer. There seems to be agreement that counseling as a separate student personnel function requires specialized skills and knowledge which can be acquired most efficiently through a specific program of preparation. However, there is also a general, although not universal, opinion among counselor educators and student personnel educators that counseling is the basic foundation of any program of preparation for student personnel work. As one respondent to the letter of inquiry said, "I don't think of a person as being a student personnel worker unless he has had training in counseling." The emphasis in the existing organized programs of preparation for student personnel work in higher education has been on preparing a generalist with further emphasis on broad administrative functions rather than on the role of student personnel services in relation to the student's educational and social development. The usual preparation for student personnel work is a doctorate in higher education which includes a student personnel course or two and a cognate program in a teaching discipline or behavioral science.

If student personnel services can be divided into counseling and a "catch-all" category of "other student services," the desired competencies and skills for each group may be considered. It is obvious that there is some overlap between these groups, i.e., to some extent similar skills and knowledge is needed. While the opinion is widely held that counseling is the bulwark or foundation of all student personnel services and the "sine qua non" for all who perform these services, it seems equally important for the counselor to develop an awareness of the relation of his role in a college setting to all the other student personnel services. This is especially true for the junior college counselor where he is less likely to operate in a separate counseling center which services only a small proportion of the total student population. The counselor in a junior college needs to have an awareness of the relationship of the total program of student services to the goals and objectives of the college and to appreciate the desirability of a student personnel staff approach to providing an integrated program of services for all students.

Any specialized preparation which may be appropriate for those who carry responsibility for leadership and administration of personnel services has not been considered in detail. There is little doubt that one of the most pressing needs in junior colleges at the present time is forceful, professional leadership. Exploration of various means of obtaining this leadership is probably beyond the boundaries of this paper. However, it seems likely that the most fruitful source of student personnel administrators should be from the ranks of these professionally trained individuals presently providing student personnel services. The nature of additional professional training which would prepare them for their administrative duties should be carefully considered.

3. What Is the Proper Length of an Organized Program of Preparation?

The optimum length of pre-service preparation for student personnel specialists is an area where there is less than unanimous agreement among administrators, student personnel workers and those responsible for their professional preparation. There are those who believe that nothing short of the doctoral level will ensure adequate skills and competencies for those engaged in student personnel tasks. Others believe that one year of graduate school, usually leading to a Master's degree, is sufficient. Another opinion which may be gaining strength holds that for many student personnel functions two years of graduate work are needed to produce appropriate professional competence.

Supply and demand factors, however, cannot be entirely ignored. The demand for personnel to assume responsibility for student personnel functions is increasing at a startling rate of speed. This demand is occurring at all levels of education and will continue for many years to come. There is no resource pool of professionally prepared persons waiting to step into these burgeoning positions. A widespread game of "musical chairs" is going on with the trained, experienced student personnel workers the objects of keen competition and the vacant chairs largely filled by classroom teachers with little or no professional preparation for the positions they assume.

Some opinion on each of the following questions must be assumed before a model of professional preparation can be designed:

1. What represents the minimal level of pre-service professional preparation (in terms of knowledge and competencies) which will give some assurance that student personnel functions will be adequately implemented?
2. Should standards of minimum preparation differ between specific student personnel functions? If so, what criteria can be applied to determine appropriate minimal standards for particular student personnel functions?
3. What kinds of post-service training experiences should be provided in order to upgrade the minimally-prepared person and how can the provisions of these experiences be insured?

Conclusions

On the basis of the evidence revealed by the data and the information gathered in the study of training resources, the following conclusions appear to be supported:

1. Clarification and delineation of the functions included in the term "student personnel program" are needed before a definitive model can be devised for the professional preparation of those responsible for the implementation of the functions. Clearly stated goals and objectives of student personnel services in the junior college must be agreed upon before the specifics of professional preparation can be derived.

2. Junior colleges are generally providing student personnel services with less than adequately trained staffs. Present research indicates that 45 per cent of the student personnel workers in the larger colleges and 60 per cent in the smaller colleges can be classified as inadequately prepared through professional training to perform student personnel functions.

3. Existing resources for the professional preparation of student personnel workers (including counselors) are not equipped to give special attention to the unique needs of the junior college.

4. Professionally prepared student personnel specialists are in demand for all levels of education. An adequate study of professionally prepared persons is not available from the programs of preparation now existing in colleges and universities. Since little attention has been directed toward the junior college in the programs of preparation, it can be assumed that its competitive position in relation to the secondary schools and four-year colleges will depend on such factors as salaries, work load as well as other components of prestige, rather than identification with the problems and promises of the junior college as an educational institution.

5. There have been only limited opportunities available to the junior college student personnel worker who was interested in upgrading himself through some form of in-service professional training.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made which, if implemented, can be expected to alleviate some of the problems revealed in this investigation and to contribute to the general improvement of the quality of student personnel services provided for junior college students.

Programs of Preparation

1. Programs of preparation should provide for extensive knowledge and skills in many student personnel areas. The junior college student personnel workers (including counselors) must have knowledge which leads to understanding of a wide variety of functions such as foreign student advising, co-curricular activity programs, financial aids, recreational activities, etc. The nature of junior college student populations, with a wide range of dimensions such as age, socio-economic background, abilities and interests, requires a broad base of understanding on the part of all student personnel workers.

2. Preparatory programs should be diverse and flexible enough to enable persons with varying backgrounds of undergraduate education to meet their specific needs in student personnel training. Programs should be designed with a broad base in the behavioral sciences and higher education more broadly conceived than in many presently existing programs. Examples of areas which should be included are a general understanding of basic principles of economics, dynamics of the labor market, the sociology and psychology of minority groups, occupational and economic mobility and its social implication and the role of the junior college in post-high school education in the United States.

3. Broad areas of specialization within the student personnel field should be reflected in programs of preparation, but the need for professional workers with general preparation should not be overlooked. Counselor preparation, because it is more firmly

based in a discipline, may be more specialized in content, but there is a continuing need for student personnel specialists with a diversity of backgrounds and more generalized preparation.

4. Because responsibility for institutional research is largely carried by members of the student personnel staff, all programs of professional preparation should include some attention to research methodology with special emphasis on the definition of research needs and the application of research findings. Some specialization in research should be provided for those who wish to concentrate their preparation in this area.

5. There is evidence that junior college student personnel workers need at least as much competency as those working at any other educational level. The minimal level of preparation recommended for school guidance specialists should also represent a minimum for junior college student personnel workers. One year of post graduate study (preferably a Master's degree) followed by appropriate supervised field experience or a structured internship would constitute an acceptable program of preparation for the non-supervisory junior college student personnel specialist.

6. Persons who have prime responsibility for the development and administration of student personnel services should have preparation equivalent to the doctoral level in a program specifically directed toward student personnel services (rather than the more general areas of higher education or administration). Those responsible for programs of preparation in this area may wish to

consider the development of model programs designed especially for junior college student personnel administrators.

7. Since it is unlikely that the present practice of appointing persons without adequate professional preparation to student personnel positions can be eliminated, it is essential that some provision be made for extensive, on-going programs of in-service training for student personnel staffs. The impact of the rapidly changing world on the junior college, and on its students and staff demands continual alterness and sensitivity to keeping up to date on developments. The participation of as broadly representative groups as possible in such in-service training projects will contribute to making them as practical and pertinent as possible.

Development of Resources

1. In order to compensate as quickly as possible for the inadequate knowledge of the junior college, its role and function in the social institution of education and the goals and objectives of student personnel services in the junior college, it is recommended that opportunity be provided for the staffs of presently existing counselor and student personnel education programs to acquire the needed understandings. This might be accomplished through special seminars, workshops, consultative services and publications sponsored jointly by such organizations as the American Association of Junior Colleges, American College Personnel Association, Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors and the United States Office of Education. It is unlikely

that the junior colleges, with their increasing demand for qualified student personnel specialists will be able to or be willing to supply persons qualified to supplement the present staffs of counselor and student personnel preparation programs. It, therefore, becomes imperative that efforts be made on a continuing basis to provide up-to-date, pertinent information on developments in all areas of junior college education so that programs of preparation can most effectively meet the staffing needs of the junior colleges.

2. Collegiate institutions offering programs of professional preparation and the junior colleges within a reasonable geographical radius should develop cooperatively practicums, field work experiences and/or internships which will be of optimal value to the students in a graduate program. It must be recognized that the lower division of a four-year college does not constitute a community-type junior college and that practicum experiences there will not adequately prepare the junior college student personnel worker.

3. Literature regarding the junior college is limited and does not generally reflect the dynamic aspect of this rapidly growing and changing educational institution. Any organized body of information concerning junior college student personnel programs is non-existent. Steps should be taken to encourage the development of all kinds of materials which would be of value in both pre-service and in-service training. In addition to the more traditional publications such as books, journal articles,

monographs, and research projects, audio-visual materials including tape recordings, videotapes, film-strips and films concerning the junior college and its student personnel services should be developed.

4. The establishment of a professional identity of the junior college student personnel specialist is essential if the goals and objectives of student services can be achieved. Efforts should be made to encourage student personnel workers in junior colleges to participate actively in all varieties of professional activity. Membership in appropriate professional organizations, attendance at local, state, regional and national meetings should be stimulated through the granting of time and funds for such purposes. The professional organizations must also assume responsibility for providing opportunities for junior college staff members to participate in the on-going programs of the organizations through committee memberships, conference participation, journal publications, etc. The junior college must be recognized as an important segment of education and a significant partner in professional student personnel work; junior college personnel must be willing to assume the responsibilities and obligations of membership in an established profession.

5. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, those who have the privilege as well as the burden of directing the junior college towards its ultimate goals must give full cognizance to the significance of student personnel services. Understanding and acceptance of the student personnel specialist and the functions

he performs is most likely to come from increased knowledge. The importance of administrative support through the provision of adequate funds, staff, equipment, materials, consultative services and encouragement toward professional growth cannot be overestimated. The chief administrator must assume responsibility for communicating the importance of student personnel services to the governing board, the faculty and the general public. He has every right to expect a full measure of assistance from the professional student personnel workers in his staff.

These recommendations are not intended to represent all that might be done or even all that is most needed. They are representative of the points of view and actions which must be taken as first steps in the further development of student personnel programs which will contribute to the optimum achievement of the goals and objectives of the junior college in the United States.

PART V

DEVELOPMENTAL TRENDS

RESEARCH NEEDS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

Donald P. Hoyt
American College Testing Program

Introduction

Writing about research needs can be a rewarding experience. It gives the author an opportunity to elaborate his personal biases, scold his lackadaisical profession, criticize his research colleagues, and present an intellectual image without the necessity of dealing intellectually with obstinate and perplexing data. The present report fails to capitalize on all these "advantages," primarily because it represents the views of many professionals, not just those of the author, and because its intent is to stimulate action rather than to serve a therapeutic function.

In April, 1964, representatives from 50 junior colleges met with educational leaders in a conference designed to highlight research needs of junior colleges, especially with respect to their student personnel programs. They read a number of specially prepared briefing papers, heard four major addresses and participated in four seminar discussions. These activities formed the basis for the present report.[1]

It is perhaps a healthy sign that the dominant concerns of the delegates were pervasive in nature. They urged research to help define the roles which junior colleges might best accept. This included an inventory of American's educational and training resources.[2] It also included an intensive study of expectations of junior colleges: What expectations are held by faculty, students, administrators, student personnel workers, board members, employers? What characteristics are associated with a given perception? What are the consequences of disparate expectations among concerned groups? How can disparities be reduced?

The criterion problem was of central concern. Dissatisfaction with college grades as the sole criterion of educational success was exceeded only by the frustration encountered in attempts to broaden the evaluative base. Research is badly needed which describes the types and limits of development which education can stimulate; without ignoring the importance of educational philosophy, a research description of modifiable and relatively unmodifiable traits and of the relationships among such traits would do much to improve the rationale of educational programs including programs devoted to student personnel services.

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[1] While delegates to the conference provided the basic stimulation for this report, they cannot be held responsible for the interpretations given to their observations. Neither can Dr. Allen Barton, Dr. William Turnbull, Dr. Melvene Hardee and Dr. Philip Tripp who provided useful summaries and suggestions regarding the seminars for which they served as research consultants. Grateful acknowledgment to all hereby is made, together with an apology for any distortions of their reports which may have inadvertently been included in this paper.

[2] The Carnegie project recently undertaken under the direction of Ralph Tyler should make a substantial contribution to fulfilling this need.

Recognition of such basic critical problems reflects the identification of the conference delegates with education generally. Their qualifications as student personnel specialists were also apparent in the more circumscribed research needs which they identified. In the next section, a description is given of those needs judged to be practically "researchable" and relatively urgent. The needs are classified according to the type of research approach they would require.

Research Needs

Type A. Needs Requiring Descriptive Studies

1. One of the most omnipresent problems of comprehensive junior colleges involves the uneven development, attractiveness, and utilization of their terminal programs. While numerous factors have been postulated to account for this observation, there is general agreement that knowledge of local labor market conditions is often woefully inadequate. Present methods for becoming informed on local needs and for making dependable projections do not focus enough on the specific local situation which is frequently at variance with regional or national trends. Hence the research need: to establish a methodology for accurately assessing local labor market conditions and for making dependable projections regarding the employment needs of a limited geographical region.

2. Conference participants expressed a belief that recent research into the measurement of college environments was a

potentially important development to junior colleges. The ecological notions implied by such assessment were believed to be fundamentally sound. However, junior colleges were believed to be sufficiently different from the types of colleges used in previous research on the college environment that special explorations of the dimensions of the junior college environment seemed desirable. The research need was seen as the identification of the major dimensions of the junior college environment, with the end result being the production of measurement devices suitable for describing this environment in any junior college.

3. The centrality of student characteristics as determinants of a wide range of philosophical, policy, and methodology decisions was widely accepted. Yet there was general concern that junior college officials knew relatively little about the student. Since the student personnel staff is generally given the responsibility for assessing and describing these characteristics, the conference participants were especially eager to close the gap between need and practice. Most participants agreed that further description of academic potentials was relatively unimportant. Assessments of other types of aptitudes and potentials were believed to be needed more. In general, the research need was to provide a comprehensive profile of the entering students at each junior college. This profile should encompass a description of major aptitudes, accomplishments, goals and aspirations, educational attitudes and values, and social class background.

4. As is true in most conferences of professional educations who have similar titles, surprise was expressed at the variety of ways to which staff time was being put. Informal observations suggested much greater emphasis on counseling at some schools than at others. And of those who emphasized counseling, there seemed to be differences in the degree to which this was a service devoted primarily to helping students make plans, to helping students resolve conflicts and overcome emotional handicaps, or to helping students improve basic educational skills. Such observations led to the expressed research need to provide a dependable description of the activities which occupy a student personnel staff and of the relative amount of time devoted to such activities. Findings relevant to this problem, while descriptive only, could be expected to be instrumental in stimulating and evaluating local planning as well as providing useful normative information.

5. Personnel programs, like any other enterprise, owe their success or failure primarily to the individuals who staff them. But the lack of a recognized discipline of student personnel work and a paucity of programs for training junior college student personnel workers has resulted in many unresolved questions regarding desirable characteristics of staff. As a first step in reducing ambiguities in this area, conference delegates identified as a research need the description of the characteristics--particularly the work-experience and educational background--of present junior college student personnel workers. The

importance of providing such a description for staff involved in each of several major types of activity--counseling, group advising, admissions, administration, etc.--was stressed.

6. Delegates were consistently sensitive to characteristics which distinguish junior college from other college students. They were agreed that the attitudes and expectations which characterize entering students play a significant role in the educational process. Frequently such characteristics seem to produce negative effects suggesting the need for pre-college information and counseling. Personnel workers concerned with the articulation and orientation functions in particular expressed the hope that information useful to the more effective performance of these functions could be provided. To this end, they cited a research need to describe the process of college choice among junior college students. Among junior college students, when is the decision to go to college made? When is the decision to attend a junior college made? On what bases are these plans formulated? Are there identifiable stages in the college choice process? Such descriptive information should provide helpful starting points for clarifying the nature of the articulation-orientation challenge.

Type B. Research Needs of a Correlational Type

Studies in this section are designed to ascertain the nature and extent of the relationship between two or more variables.

1. Considerable attention was paid to the well-known discrepancy between transfer aspirations and transfer behavior on the part of junior college students. There was general agreement

that junior college students rate transfer curricula as more prestigious than terminal curricula. This results in a general reluctance to seek a level of training commensurate with potentials. But the spurning of terminal curricula was acknowledged as an inconsistent phenomenon; some terminal curricula were extremely popular, while at other colleges these same programs were sparsely attended. These observations led to the development of the following research question: "What factors are related to prestige ratings of various curricula?" While some prestige differences will probably always exist, they tend to contribute to unrealistic planning by introducing irrational considerations; in this sense, they are undesirable. If substantial relationships exist between such rankings and "controllable" factors, some hope can be held for reducing the negative effects of prestige differentials. Delegates were particularly eager to test the relationship between the prestige of terminal curricula and the occupational placement success each had enjoyed.

2. Conference participants were sensitive to the cooperative nature of successful educational experiences. They were agreed that isolated efforts by faculty and student personnel workers were much less potent than consciously integrated approaches. Yet concern was expressed that the mutual acceptance and respect which underlies such cooperation was too often lacking. This concern evolved into the research question: "What personal and situational variables are associated with faculty acceptance of student personnel workers?" A number of specific hypotheses were

offered. Among these, there was a strong feeling that the relationship between faculty acceptance and the awarding of academic rank and teaching responsibilities to personnel workers merited special attention. Other factors which were hypothesized to be related to faculty acceptance included previous educational experience, type of educational preparation for present student personnel responsibility, and relative time emphases given to various aspects of the student personnel program.

3. Despite awareness of the need for a broad, imaginative conception of student personnel programs, the centrality of counseling to such a program was widely recognized. Further, there was consensus that the extreme range of talent and opportunity which characterize junior colleges contributes to an especially strong press for assistance with effective educational and vocational planning. Despite several decades of productive research devoted to the measurement of aptitudes, interests, and personality and to the determination of the implications of these characteristics, disappointingly little information is available which is of direct value to the counselor attempting to assist junior college students with future planning. The practical need was stated as a research question: "What are the characteristics which differentiate among successful persisters in various programs and between successful and unsuccessful enrollees in a given program?" Implied in this question are the following: correlation coefficients are inadequate means of helping counselors provide information to students; broad but long-range criteria are

most helpful; and a comprehensive set of student characteristics (not just academic ability measures) should be employed in research of this type.

4. The delegates, while relatively homogeneous with respect to responsibilities and devotion to education, were extremely diverse in patterns of educational and occupational experiences. Many of them, as administrators, had the responsibility of staffing their student personnel programs. The question of what makes for an effective personnel worker naturally arose; and the diversity of characteristics apparent in this "successful" group offered no special clues. However, the participants were unwilling to conclude that effective and ineffective student personnel workers could not be differentiated. As a consequence, they formulated the research question: "What personal and experiential characteristics are related to effectiveness in performing student personnel functions?" Participants made it clear that, in seeking correlates of judging effectiveness, a broad range of characteristics should be considered including personality traits, specific educational preparation, and work experiences. There was the feeling on the part of some that there are important limitations to any training program (that personality characteristics and work experiences were of such importance that special training was often irrelevant). Research should cast light on this important question.

5. Since junior college student personnel workers, like

junior colleges themselves, share concerns with both secondary schools and four-year colleges, it is not surprising to discover controversies which have engaged the attention of their "relatives" in these settings. One such controversy concerns the ratio of students to full-time counselors. In secondary schools it has become increasingly standard to seek a 300:1 ratio; in four-year colleges the goal is more frequently 1,000:1 (and the reality frequently as high as 2,000:1). The controversy, when phrased as a research question, was stated as: "What are the consequences (correlates) of various student-counselor ratios?" Illustratively, do schools where the ratio is 300:1, 500:1, and 1,000:1 differ in terms of student expressed need for assistance of various types, drop-out rate, faculty referrals (and other indicators of faculty acceptance), number of changes in program registrations, realism of student plans, etc.? There was widespread agreement that at present this controversy might better be viewed as an empirical question than as a philosophical debate.

Type C. Experimental Studies

This section has been reduced disproportionately to the amount of attention delegates gave to this type of inquiry. It is a tribute to their inquisitive nature and to their restless professional pride that they devoted so much discussion time to describing approaches to studying recurring problems by studying the effects of various treatments on relevant groups. To fully elaborate these stimulating ideas into research problems would require an inordinate amount of space and would be unnecessarily redundant in terms of describing the nature of the research need. Therefore, a restricted sampling of some especially promising projects is provided below.

1. As was mentioned earlier, there was recognition of the centrality of educational and vocational counseling in junior college student personnel programs. An apparent paradox was cited, however, by the acknowledged prestige hierarchy within the counseling field. Both general observation and the limited research evidence agree that counselors perceive their efforts to help students deal with emotional problems and to overcome destructive attitudes and personality characteristics to be much more prestigeful than the less "dynamic" responsibilities assigned to educational and vocational counseling. The consequences are frequently reported as (a) unreasonable amounts of time devoted to psychotherapeutic activities at the expense of vocational and educational counseling and (b) unfortunate focusing in educational-vocational counseling on the emotional and irrational aspects of planning at the expense of information giving and rational thought regarding alternative plans. The consistency of experience relevant to the above observations suggests the following research problem: "How can the prestige of educational-vocational counseling be upgraded?" Imaginative programs designed to return vocational counseling to a prestigeful status in the perception of counselors will probably have to be instigated by educational administrators. Such individuals have the capabilities of both inspiring counselors and of rewarding them in ways

which contribute to perceptual learning. The research problem herein suggested will require thoughtful attention to the ways and means of accomplishing these ends.

2. The role of values in the educational enterprise has attracted much attention and controversy. That value development is a legitimate goal in education is increasingly accepted; similarly, the unavoidability of value imposition in educational (including counseling) settings is now widely recognized. But precisely what values are to be nourished is controversial. This has inhibited the development of value-oriented programs and has made ambiguous the interpretation of research on the question of the impact of education on value development. Conferees agreed (with no pretense at resolving all value issues) that we could accept at least one value orientation as a desirable educational goal. This orientation was described as one of rationality in which the individual adopts an essentially experimental frame of mind with respect to all his values, plans, aspirations, and attitudes. With this value, the student willingly tests the adequacy of his conception of himself and his world, entertains alternative possibilities, and seeks in rational ways to determine ever more useful and consistent perceptions of life. To the extent that educational experiences are conducive to the development of such a value commitment they can be said to fulfill an important purpose of education. The challenge is a considerable one, and was perceived by the delegates as a research problem which studies the impact of contrived patterns of experiences

(both curricular and extra-curricular) upon value development. Assuming consensus regarding the educational relevance of a given value and the feasibility of consciously attempting to nourish it, the research problem calls for original approaches to communicating the value and to reenforcing it through contrived educational experiences.

3. The academic adviser came in for a good deal of attention throughout the conference. His potential for exerting positive educational influences on his advisees was widely acknowledged; his failure to do so was as widely decried. While numerous hypotheses were offered to account for these observations, none was more convincingly argued than that concerned with adviser's attitudes toward individual students. Briefly, the general belief was expressed that advisory ineffectiveness was related to their failure to endorse attitudes which have come to characterize the "student personnel point of view" (respect for the worth and dignity of each individual, interest in and concern for his welfare, and acceptance of and valuing of his uniqueness). There seemed to be less question about the adequacy of this diagnosis than there was about the treatment implications. Hence the research problem suggested was what patterns of communication between student personnel workers and faculty advisers effectively promote the student personnel point of view in the latter? Delegates were not unaware of the fact they traveled a two-way street with advisers, and were not unwilling to permit faculty influence to modify their own views. Nevertheless, the relative value of

various types of adviser training programs, the provision of various types of student data to advisers, and of other formal and informal communication in increasing the adviser's concern and respect for the student should be carefully explored.

4. Acceptance of the relevance of student needs for educational programming and services has stimulated and supported student personnel services in higher education. These services, reflecting concern for the uniqueness of each student, have traditionally involved one-to-one contacts between the personnel workers and the student. The rising tide of enrollment, coupled with limited student personnel budgets and a shortage of qualified professionals, has produced an imbalance in the supply of and demand for personnel services. Thus, long waiting lists and/or brief, superficial contacts characterize many of these services. In recognition of this situation, participants raised a practical research problem which challenges the assumption that one-to-one personal contacts are most effective. In brief, the problem suggested comparing the effectiveness of less traditional, but more economical, procedures with one-to-one contacts. This research problem was felt to be especially relevant to vocational-educational counseling services and to advising programs. In addition to the alternative of working with groups rather than individuals, the delegates gave special support to the idea that "automated" or "programmed" experiences should be carefully evaluated.

5. The research problem of critically evaluating the effectiveness of each personnel service in meeting especially pertinent

goals was a major theme of the conference. Delegates expressed the view that the difficulties inherent in evaluating services in terms of their impact on fundamental educational objectives might discourage any evaluation efforts. They expressed the view that less ambitious evaluations of limited goals were both practical and desirable. For example, they felt research aimed at such questions as, "Do orientation programs reduce freshman dropouts?", "Do activity programs promote student loyalty to the school?", "By which of several approaches to the dissemination of articulation information do pre-college students learn the most about the college?" and "Are vocational counseling interviews associated with increased realism in vocational planning?" would be desirable and helpful.

6. Special mention should be made of a final concern of the delegates. Certain groups of junior college students were believed to present such unusual challenges to the school that entirely new programs may have to be instigated to meet their needs. At one time or another, conference participants shared their concern for the special problems posed by the failing junior college student, for the junior college student who cannot bring himself to voluntarily seek counseling, for the junior college "resumer," and for the part-time junior college adult. The need for innovative programs designed to meet the problems posed by these "special" groups was apparent. The research problem posed was not basically different from that mentioned above--the importance of establishing the effectiveness of

various approaches to these special groups. The concern illustrates well the nature of the professional problem faced by junior college student personnel workers. They cannot depend upon research to provide the innovative ideas designed to meet the challenges posed by a diverse group of students; neither can they depend on originality (nor staff meetings) to determine if the innovations were effective inventions. Creative thought and hard-nosed research together represent a team on which junior college student personnel services will hopefully increasingly depend.

Special Problems and Implications

That research is needed as a dependable foundation for the entire educational enterprise and as a necessary support to its elements--including junior college student personnel programs--is an undisputed but trite observation. The needs outlined in the preceding pages are not artificial needs; research focused on such needs will of necessity contribute to our broad understandings and provide intellectual supports for our programs and services.

But large scale research on a broad basis runs the risk of ignoring the truism that education makes its impact in the local situation.

However valuable it may be to understand the "big picture" --to characterize junior college staffs, programs, facilities, and students; to observe their interactions; to compare educational goals and aspirations with the realities of institutional and student potentials--it is likely that individual institutions will be more affected by and more likely to act upon local research than upon the broad generalizations emerging from comprehensive research efforts. In terms of local programs, this is entirely appropriate. The well-established diversities in student bodies (and the less well-established diversities which likely characterize faculties, communities, and institutional facilities) warn against the application of research generalizations to individual situations.

Thus it can be reasoned that the impact of research on junior college student personnel practices will be more potent when the research is based on local data than when it is reported as a general finding or a finding derived from some other school. In some ways, even a comprehensive review of needed research would be of little direct educational significance unless individual schools were able to find their own unique solutions to what may seem to be general problems.

This plea for local research is made with full recognition of the substantial roadblocks to its accomplishment. One can hardly imagine more negative inducements than those which surround the typical junior college student personnel worker. Day to day service demands leave him with no free time; his operating budget is austere and contains no research allowance; his institution is frequently too small to justify data processing installations; and he himself more often than not feels either incapable of performing research or uninterested in getting involved with it.

Whether these considerable handicaps can be overcome will determine whether or not research will play the key role it deserves in the development not only of student personnel programs but of the total range of junior college programs.

An important key to opening the educational research door in junior colleges is efficiency. And the most obvious key to efficiency is cooperation. Cooperative efforts are needed in three critical areas.

1. Instrumentation. Frequent mention has been made throughout this report of the need for adequate measuring devices. A comprehensive assessment of student characteristics other than "standard" aptitude and achievement measures requires careful thought and sophisticated understanding of questionnaire-inventory construction. Similarly, the development of meaningful criterion measures--whether immediate, intermediate, or long range--is hardly a parlor game. Results which would accrue if each college handled such needs on its own would be considerably less valuable than if they pooled their talents and developed measuring devices which represented the best efforts of a team of professionals.

Many schools now construct their own "biographical inventories." Enough similarities exist to suggest that they have reasonably common objectives. Yet they will vary in their approaches to measurement and in their range of inquiry. The construction of a standard "Student Questionnaire" aimed at a comprehensive assessment of goals, attitudes, values, and backgrounds and representative of the best efforts of a pool of experts would produce both a superior instrument and one which would permit useful comparisons among schools.

A serious team approach to the criterion problem should be equally beneficial. Student personnel objectives vary from the most global educational accomplishments to specific services performed. Frequently the local investigator gives up on any evaluation efforts because of the impracticality of a total assessment of criteria. If objective means of obtaining at least a partial assessment were available, it would make possible useful local research. Suggested means whereby various types of programs could be evaluated could be supplied. Measures of counseling success, of a financial aid program's success, of an orientation course's accomplishments, and so forth, would encourage schools to examine these programs and to compare their results with alternatives.

2. Data processing. A relatively few statistical procedures are applicable to a very broad range of problems. Once a computer program is written, the costs of providing analyses for a number of schools is relatively small.

Most schools cannot afford large scale electronic data processing equipment. It is only when such equipment is fully and efficiently utilized that its major advantages are realized. For most junior colleges, these advantages could be realized only through a cooperative plan whereby centralized computer facilities were made available to all.

The types of problems suitable to such cooperative efforts are not fully known. Certainly the provision by external testing programs of centralized prediction services has demonstrated the feasibility of this idea. No doubt centralized services for statistically differentiating various groups--graduates from non-graduates, curriculum 1 from curriculum 2, and so forth--would be immediately feasible. Similarly, a service for providing a thorough analysis of the freshman class profile could be reasonably supplied. Services for performing other potentially useful types of analyses--for example, factor analyses or statistical tests of differences among groups with both pre- and post-test scores--can easily be imagined.

The plea here is to take advantage of the immense research potentials which computer technology has made available. To do so, wide scale cooperation will be necessary.

3. Research consultants. What was said earlier about the research capabilities of student personnel workers should not be taken as scepticism regarding their curiosity or eagerness to learn from research. But the handicaps which their lack of technical research background impose cannot be denied.

The realism of finding a local research specialist or of being able to invite in a research consultant on demand is dubious. But the prospect of having continuous consulting services available through the cooperative employment of a few specialists is reasonable. Technical consultants can be expected to translate campus problems and questions into research designs, to be familiar with suitable measuring devices, to recognize the capabilities and limitations of available data processing facilities, and to interpret the statistical meanings of research findings.

Such consultative assistance should provide a valuable resource to the practitioner who all too frequently has a sophisticated grasp of research problems but little training in the ways and means by which the problem could be studied.

It is appropriate to conclude this paper by describing one further research need. This refers to the omnipresent problem of translating research findings into action programs. One need not look far to discover practices on his own campus which research has shown to be ineffective, or discarded programs which research established as effective. All too frequently research seems to be an isolated intellectual exercise whose purpose is to provide its author with a publication or to permit him to complete requirements for a master's or doctor's degree.

Factors which support attitudes of disinterest and rejection of research as a problem-solving method need to be better understood. Then methods for altering such attitudes should be investigated. Knowledge of effective means for increasing the role of research in education would contribute as much or more to improving the entire educational enterprise as any of the proposals outlined in the preceding discussion. The pursuit of such knowledge constitutes one of the most important research needs in higher education.

The strong research bias of this report is evident and intentional. No apology for it is offered, though explicit recognition that research will not resolve all problems of higher education is granted. The inescapable fact is that perhaps our most potent intellectual resource, research, has been woefully neglected as a means to the resolution of education's problems. This report is a plea to right this wrong and to suggest the directions we might most profitably point to improve the future.

THE NEED FOR NEW APPRAISAL TECHNIQUES IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

John E. Dobbin
and
William W. Turnbull
Educational Testing Service

All colleges need to gather information about their students for a variety of good educational reasons. The junior college, usually expected to serve many of the traditional purposes of other kinds of colleges plus some community-centered purposes all its own, has most of the informational needs of four-year colleges *and* some very special needs. So that it may serve better its own community and its wide range of students, the junior college gathers information about *individual students* for use in: (1) admissions counseling, (2) placement in appropriate courses, (3) educational and vocational counseling, (4) arranging transfers of credit to higher institutions, and (5) finding the graduating student a job.

In addition to the information gathered about individual students, the junior college also needs to gather information about *groups* of people--mostly students--for the purposes of: (6) planning and evaluating programs of instruction, (7) appraising and upgrading the faculty, (8) assessing the student personnel program of the college, and (9) evaluating college administrative policies. These nine purposes are all related to the work a single junior college does with its own student body in its own community; none is aimed at the more general problem of finding out what "average junior college students" are like in large categories of institutions. An important question in the appraisal development of junior college student personnel programs is how well each purpose is served by methods and materials now used in junior colleges.

For Which Informational Needs Are Satisfactory Appraisal Techniques Available?

A brief definition of terms might be in order. "Appraisal techniques" includes methods and know-how as well as tangible instruments and published procedures. "Satisfactory" means that the technique provides information that is reasonably reliable and useful--not necessarily with the high reliability of the kind one requires of every instrument used for individual diagnosis. A technique is "available" if somebody in the United States has used it and is willing to share it by some means, gratis or for a fee.

Functions Requiring Information About Individual Students

Admissions Counseling--Academic. For this purpose, the junior college has available more instruments and techniques for gathering information about the student than for any other purpose: (1) the high school record, (2) scores earned on tests taken in high school, and (3) "external" tests like those of the College Board, a state testing program, or the American College Testing program. And, if it is necessary (a highly doubtful possibility), the junior college can administer a special test for admission counseling--a test obtained by purchase from a publisher of standardized tests and preferably selected by a joint committee of junior college department heads and high school counselors. One job the junior college must do on its own whether the test information is obtained on a special test or on tests used by the high school: the job of finding out whether test scores and other information of record are useful for prediction of success in the junior college.

Admissions Counseling--Vocational. The sources of information for counseling students about vocational education include all those mentioned for academic counseling--the high school record, high school test scores (perhaps with special emphasis on reading and mathematical skills), and scores earned on "external" tests--but should be augmented by some additional sources which are not so commonly tapped by the high school. These include measures of vocational interest or preference (Strong Vocational Interest Blank and Kuder Preference Record) and various measures of vocational aptitude (Differential Aptitude Tests, Flanagan Aptitude Classification Battery, GAT-B, Project Talent Battery). The one fact most important about all of the measures related to vocational counseling (and only slightly less true about measures related to academic counseling) and probably least recognized by educators and laymen alike is that none of the known instruments for obtaining information about students is much good for admissions counseling until it has been VALIDATED for prediction of success in a given course in a given college. Hence, a "test of mechanical aptitude" (or musical aptitude or scholastic aptitude) could be the best test of its kind extant and still be totally useless--or, worse, misleading--unless it is tried out in the college that considers using it, so that the relationship between success on the test and success in the course can be ascertained. Since the test (particularly an "aptitude" test) is nothing more than a work sample, one needs to find out how closely the work in the "sample" is related to the work in the course. If the relationship is a close one and the student who does well on the test is also likely to do well in the course, scores on the test are useful in forecasting course success and therefore useful in admissions counseling--but this closeness of relationship cannot be assumed and must be established in every college, department by department. And the trying-out is a technical process requiring professional skills and resources which will be discussed later.

Admissions Counseling--"Other." In addition to students in the two major categories of academic and vocational applicants who must be counseled toward, away from, or through the junior college, there are in some communities large numbers of adults seeking further education of all kinds--academic, vocational, or simply self-improvement--in a great variety of credit and non-credit courses offered at hours when they can attend without having to give up their jobs. Aside from general background information which can be obtained in an interview, the counselor usually wants to know two things about this adult "other" applicant in order to counsel him wisely: (a) Can he handle the tools of learning (reading, writing, figuring) well enough to get along in the course he wants? (b) Is his background in the special field he wants (if he's interested in a vocational course) as adequate as he thinks it is?

To answer the first question the counselor can use one of several academic ability measures available, making sure that the time limits are generous enough not to impose a psychological hazard on adults--and that the norms used are built on the performance of adults out of school.

To answer the second question the counselor can have the applicant talk briefly with one of the instructors in the field he seeks; the instructor is better able than the counselor to guess how much and what kind of experience in the field the applicant has.

In sum, a test of academic ability normed on adults out of school will be a useful tool for the counselor of "other" kinds of applicants to the junior college--providing there are local as well as publisher's norms on adults. For adults who apply for admission to regular programs of vocational instruction, however, the tests used in counseling "regular" students probably should be used.

Placement in Appropriate Courses--Academic. Even when it is fairly clear that an applicant is likely to be a successful student in the junior college and he has been encouraged to matriculate, the question often arises: Which of our courses in Freshman English should he take? Or, how advanced a course in math can he handle? Used accurately and insightfully, the sources of information tapped for admissions counseling (high school record, high school test scores, etc.) can be exploited to do this job of placement also. Alternatively, the faculties in departments which offer a smorgasbord for freshmen may be enlisted in a team effort to devise a test in the form of a work sample which can be given to incoming students in order to help estimate where they ought to start in that department's program. There are some useful raw materials available from several sources--including the College Board--but the development of special placement tests is a job for the college staff itself, with the help and leadership of some specialists to be mentioned later in connection with "institutional research."

Placement in Appropriate Courses--Vocational. With the applicant for vocational instruction, the junior college has to do just about everything that it does with the academic student in connection with placement (the vocational student takes academic courses, too), plus the job of placement in the vocational program. Various measures of developed vocational skill are available--some of them through commercial publishers but most of them through contact with state and federal employment services--but every one of the available tests has to be validated for the particular courses of a junior college by means of a joint study with the staff who teach that course. This is a difficult and highly technical job, one which teaching faculty seldom have either the training or the time to do unassisted. The job is to create situations in which the student can demonstrate the degree to which he has already developed the skills for which the vocational instruction is designed.

Placement in Appropriate Courses--"Other." The placement of adult applicants for single courses usually involves a combination of techniques and resources drawn from the arsenal used with "regular" students. Since adult applicants often have a greater supply than younger students of an essential ingredient for college success--motivation--this might be a convenient place to mention resources for estimating that characteristic. Since "instruments" for measurement of motivation of any kind are still far from being ready for application generally, counselors and teachers and administrators are forced to use other kinds of evidence when they try to guess how much desire a student has to succeed in the education he is applying for. For students who are coming into the junior college directly out of high school, the single best indicator of academic drive is the grade average earned in high school; beyond that the counselor has to delve rather deeply into the personal history of a student in order to sharpen his estimate of the youngster's motivation for learning. Notable exceptions to this rule, of course, are to be found in young people who hope to obtain vocational training in the junior college which they could not find in the high school--those who are highly motivated for learning in vocational courses but who have had no chance to show it in academic courses which they feel are unrelated to their lives. There simply does not exist any convenient measure of motivation for young people in the college situation; the counselor has to build up his hunches from many sources and watch the student very closely during his freshman year. Among adult students, on the other hand, the very fact that they are applying for instruction during hours that otherwise would be devoted to "recreation" is on its face some evidence of motivation.

Educational Counseling With the Student in College. Educational counseling with the academic student involves interpretation of what the college knows about him in the light of the educational choices that are open to him--choices of courses and curricula for next year, choices of institutions to which to transfer after the sophomore year, choices of courses and curricula within those other institutions. Just as in the prediction of success across the gap between high school and college, the best single predictor of academic success next year is the record of how well the student has done this year and last year--the transcript of course grades. To add an element of comparability which the transcript alone seldom has, students nearing the point of graduation from junior college often are tested with instruments appropriate for their level and their concentration of study. The Graduate Record Examinations and others have been used for this purpose, and the recently-developed Comprehensive College Tests have among their purposes measuring the proficiency of students in the sophomore year. No matter what measures may be used for the purpose of smoothing the transition to upper-division work, however, the now-familiar job of specific validation needs to be undertaken jointly by the junior colleges (probably a small group of them) and the senior institutions to which they send transfer students. The single largest missing ingredient in the whole business of academic transfer from junior colleges to four-year colleges is detailed experience data to describe the four-year college that the student is considering. That is, the counselor in Junior College A who is trying to advise a student on his chances if he transfers to Senior College B cannot do a very good job if he does not know what happened to earlier transfers from A to B. To do a good job of educational counseling, the junior college has to obtain information about former students who transfer by literally following them into the upper-division colleges where most of them go. This means doing follow-up studies of the junior college's former students--another difficult and highly technical job.

Vocational Counseling with Students in College. Seldom is the counselor sure that a given student who happens to be a vocational student is going to remain a vocational student, or that an academic student is not next semester going to turn up in the vocational curriculum, so that at least some educational counseling is given to all students regardless of their current curricular location. But with terminal students in vocational programs there is an additional job for the personnel staff: that of knowing the local employment picture and the student's vocational qualifications, and matching the two. Both of these things--employers' needs and students' characteristics--are subject to ordinary kinds of investigation and recording. No special kinds of "instruments" are needed--only a little imagination and a lot of hard work on the part of the college. In more than a casual way, the continuous tracking of the labor market in order to match vocational students to it resembles the job that ought to be done for academic students in keeping track of its "employers" of transfer students, the four-year colleges to which the junior college graduates go. The techniques to be employed are almost identical. And difficult.

Arranging Transfers of Credit to Higher Institutions. Beyond the information-gathering that is necessary for realistic counseling of academic students who intend to continue college studies at four-year colleges, there is need for actual communication of information about the student to the next higher institution. Good materials and instruments and know-how for doing this job are available, but they are not as much used by the junior colleges as they should be. Two kinds of evidence can be submitted to the higher institution: (a) the student's academic record in junior college including translations of the code used in grading and recording, and (b) a record of the student's performance on a test recognized and interpretable by the higher institution. The raw materials--appropriate tests and transcript forms--for this kind of communication exist, but operational development of either or both kinds of evidence requires cooperative effort between the junior colleges of an area and the four-year colleges to which they normally send most of their transfer students.

Finding the Student a Job. Like vocational counseling, successful performance of this function requires current knowledge of the local employment picture--plus direct lines of communication with all kinds of potential employers and a system by which the student's qualifications can be clearly and honestly described. How good is this student in the skills the job demands? Compared with whom? Development of such a system demands close work with local employers and employment agencies. While ideas and instruments and other ingredients for this kind of communication are readily available, the job of putting them together and making a suitable system work is one that has to be done on the scene; nothing of this kind can be either bought or borrowed "ready-made."

Functions Requiring Information About Groups of Students

Planning and Evaluating Programs of Academic Instruction. Appraisal techniques for planning and evaluating instruction are aimed at the collection of descriptive data for groups of students. The information must then be summarized (in terms of averages, ranges, and such) and interpreted by the college for its own use. Several approaches are available in planning and evaluating academic programs:

1. Systematic study of high school test data and high school records for incoming students will afford a vast amount of informa-

tion not now fully used. Only after this source of information has been exploited will it be economical to take additional steps.

2. Systematic study of high school records and test data for students who do not come to the junior college should be useful, too, in defining the job of the junior college and assessing the appeal of its program.

3. Cooperative and comparative study of curricula--at the junior college, at the sending high schools, at the receiving four-year colleges--can bring the junior college into reasonable continuity with institutions below and above on matters of academic content and curricula.

4. Development of techniques for appraisal of academic programs of instruction by means of testing probably will be most fruitful if it is done jointly by measurement specialists (from the personnel office) and members of the teaching faculty. One junior college acting on its own can select from among available test materials those which have the best "fit" with certain parts of its own academic program. If the junior colleges of a state or region have common courses or curricula--and if there are special norms to be built or special tests to be made--the colleges can accomplish much more acting in concert than they can acting individually. Finally, for purposes of evaluating many parts of the curriculum appropriate tests just do not exist and must be built from scratch; these tests could well be measures of group performance, shorter than test units suitable for describing

individuals, and probably can be developed most efficiently through a national agency such as the American Association of Junior Colleges--since their development will require not only test construction but also their administration in both junior colleges and four-year institutions.

5. The single most potent tool for finding out how well a program of instruction works is the follow-up study. Until a college has taken the time and effort to see what its graduates are like, it can only assume that the program it offers does the student some good. Follow-up studies are difficult undertakings, if their results are to be useful--and they cost money and time. A classic study of this kind is reported in *The First Fifteen Years of the College of St. Scholastica*, Fordham University Press.

Planning and Evaluating Programs of Vocational Instruction. Both the planning and the evaluating of vocational instruction are done with an eye on the local employment picture. What kinds of jobs open up for young people in our area? How many youngsters have we trained for these jobs and placed? What proportions of them succeed on their jobs? What kinds of jobs would there be in this area if trained personnel were available? And so on. There is required a patient and technical gathering and analysis of employment information, as well as follow-up studies among former vocational students employed locally.

With certain vital and technical industries tending to concentrate demands for trained manpower in certain areas of the country (aero-space, atomic energy, defense--to give a few obvious examples), there may emerge a need for some national means of organizing the training of workers and directing them to employment in distant sections of the country. When this happens, local junior college programs of vocational instruction in certain technical fields will need to be planned and assessed in terms of criteria and data established nationally--through some joint effort of the AAJC, the Department of Labor, and the industries involved.

Planning and Assessing "Other" Instruction. Since both the needs for adult part-time instruction and the criteria for its assessment originate in the local community, the planning and assessment have to be done on the basis of locally obtained information. The junior college has to do its own surveys to discover needs, then asks its own students how well those needs are being met.

Appraising and Upgrading the Teaching Staff. Of the several known criteria used in appraisal of a college faculty, only one will be of concern here--appraisals made possible by observation of student characteristics. What happens to students in this junior college? What does the college faculty do to them? When only this one technique is used, it is possible to enlist faculty participation in study of themselves. This is an enterprise in which no individual teacher is turned on the spit but one in which whole departments are helped to find out what their impact on students has been. Reference again the little book describing the experience of the faculty at the College of St. Scholastica. Although this function can be carried on entirely locally, it will be illuminating if several junior colleges collect similar kinds of data and compare notes on their findings. The consistencies and differences between institutions frequently raise questions that are overlooked if only a single campus is involved.

Assessing the Student Personnel Program. Such an assessment is no more available for purchase "off the shelf" than an assessment of instruction. It has to be developed within the faculty of the college and follows the classic pattern of scientific inquiry: (a) state the purposes of the program--best with faculty and student help; (b) establish the criteria by which the success of the program will be judged; (c) apply the criteria and interpret the evidence that accumulates. To the extent that several junior colleges of a state or region have the same purposes in their student personnel programs and approximately the same kinds of students, they will find it worth while to join forces in development of refined techniques for assessment of this program. Many hands do make lighter work, but no amount of cooperative endeavor is fruitful if its product is assessment for somebody else's student personnel program--not ours. There are some "instruments" which might be useful in this work (such as College and University Environment Scales developed by Robert Pace) and which could be improved for junior college use specifically by a nation-wide group of interested junior colleges acting under the direction of the American Association of Junior Colleges or another national agency. What is missing in the whole problem of staff evaluation--both assessment of instruction and evaluation of the student personnel program--is the knowledge and resources for doing such studies in the local junior college.

Evaluating the Administrative Policies of the College. Like assessment of teaching and of the student personnel program, evaluation of the junior college's administrative policies and practices will depend upon prior statement of the purposes of administration in the local college and upon agreement as to criteria by which its success may be judged. Aid on both of these points may be obtained from state or national associations of junior college people, but collection and interpretation of evidence (information about students) is strictly a local job.

What Are the GAPS in Available Appraisal Techniques?

Having briefly mentioned nine major needs of the junior college for information about its students, then having compared with these needs the instruments and techniques which are available for their solution, it is possible to ascertain where at least the most glaring deficiencies are in student appraisal. Anticipating a later need to revise the list again according to sources of solution, we shall use here a three-category classification of resources.

1. Gaps and needs in appraisal which can be solved most effectively on a nation-wide scale by some agency or association that can wield nation-wide resources we shall group under "TYPE A" resources for solution.

2. Gaps and needs which can be solved best by joint action among the junior colleges of a metropolitan area, a state, or a geographic region--a relatively small group of similar junior colleges acting in concert--we shall group under "TYPE B" resources for solution.

3. Gaps in appraisal materials and methods which I think can be closed only by action on the part of the local junior college, acting independently, we shall group under "TYPE C" resources for solution.

Thus the gaps (or needs or shortcomings) are organized here not by type but by the possible source of their solution.

TYPE A - Appraisal Needs to be Met on the Basis of Nation-wide Action.

Classification of a need for appraisal technique in this category does not mean that national action is the only hope for solution--rather that in the opinion of the writers the greatest likelihood of solution lies in action taken by some national association or agency.

A1. Construction or adaptation of a test of academic ability at about the high school senior level of difficulty, requiring application of ordinary skills of reading and number facility to academic problems--appropriate for adults in content and with norms for adults out of school five years or more. The American Association of Junior Colleges (AAJC), for example, could support the adaptation of several ability tests widely used in high schools and colleges.

A2. Development and validation of interview techniques by which an experienced teacher in a vocational department of a junior college can, in an interview with an applicant, estimate both the extent of his experience in the field and his likely level of skill. The American Association of Junior Colleges, working with the United States Employment Service (USES), could do this.

A3. Development of a standard system by which the local junior college student personnel man could ascertain and keep current with local and regional employment needs--a technique for continuing study of employment at the local level. Again, this is something that the American Association of Junior Colleges might undertake to do jointly with the United States Employment Service.

A4. Development of a standardized system which the local junior college counselor or placement officer could use to describe the student in ways that are meaningful to prospective employers. This might be the analogue of the Cooperative Plan for Guidance and Admission (CPGA) developed at the college sophomore level.

A5. Development of a standardized system for describing the academic transfer student to four-year colleges in which he is interested--again, a kind of CPGA at the college sophomore level. This could be an interesting and rewarding joint project for the American Association of Junior Colleges and the Association of Colleges and Universities.

A6. Cooperative development of short, highly efficient tests for measuring academic characteristics of groups of students in college freshman and sophomore subjects. These could be adaptations of currently available tests for individuals--or new tests. Their local applications would be for the purpose of assessing programs of instruction. The job probably should be done by the American Association of Junior Colleges, or by another agency under the supervision of committees appointed by the American Association of Junior Colleges.

A7. Cooperative development of tests for measuring the non-academic characteristics of groups of students. The same techniques as in A6 could be used but aimed at such non-cognitive things as learning climate, group impact on learning, effects of home environment, changes in values, and so on.

A8. Development of a clearing house for employment information and applicant qualifications in those areas of technical specialization that tend to be concentrated geographically. Possibly this could be another joint undertaking by the American Association of Junior Colleges and the Department of Labor.

TYPE B - Appraisal Needs to be Met on the Basis of Cooperative Action Among the Junior Colleges of a State or Region.

Natural groupings of junior colleges are not the same in all parts of the country, but this category pertains to "group action" by junior colleges that are similar in some respects whatever their basis for organization.

B1. Joint study by several junior colleges to obtain experience data describing the characteristics of successful transfer students at the principal "receiving" colleges in the area. One junior college usually does not have a sufficient number of former students in any one institution to make serious statistical studies; several junior colleges together could find out what happens to their students in the state university or the Ivy League mecca. (To some extent, a Type A effort is needed also--to make known to junior college counselors some of the institutional characteristics of the "receiving" colleges that might be useful in counseling future transferees.)

B2. A state or regional transfer agreement describing the evidence of academic achievement and test performance which a given higher institution will accept for admission of transfer students from a named group of junior colleges or from the lower divisions of other four-year institutions. That is, such an agreement should be worked out by the group of "sending" junior colleges with each one of their major "receiving" institutions.

B3. Cooperative studies of curricula at high school and college levels--to facilitate continuity in the sequence of academic programs in which the junior college enjoys the "middle" position.

B4. Cooperative efforts for the adaptation of group tests for curricular study. One junior college working at this alone makes discouragingly slow progress; teams of staff members from a number of similar colleges not only move faster but do a better job.

B5. Development of criterion definitions and procedures for evaluative studies of junior college administration. It will be wise for such a study in each junior college to involve the faculty and the students, but the criteria and the ground rules should be established in the first instance by the administrators acting as a committee--probably with advisory help from the American Association of Junior Colleges.

TYPE C - Appraisal Needs Which in Most Circumstances Can Be Satisfied Best by Action at the Local Level.

These are jobs to be done by the individual junior college on its own.

C1. Local validation of high school records and test data as predictors of academic success.

C2. Local validation of high school records and test data as predictors of success in vocational courses.

C3. Joint study, by the junior college and its sending high schools, of the prediction or guidance usefulness of some measure of vocational interest.

C4. Joint study of the local predictive power of one or more measures of vocational aptitude. Both C3 and C4 studies might involve also the local office of the United States Employment Service or the state employment service, too, but the junior college people probably will have to provide the leadership. (There is so much of this local validation work to be done, before available measures of vocational interest and aptitude and skill can be honestly useful in vocational counseling, that the interested people from several similar junior colleges in a region could well get together and divide up the job--hoping that at least some of the validation done in the "other" college will stand up in "our" junior college. This would be, of course, a Type B kind of solution that could grow out of early Type C efforts.)

C5. Local validation of various measures of vocational skill at the job entry level, department by department. This will require close cooperation between the teacher, the student personnel man, and the local employment office--state or federal--in which the vocational skill tests originate.

C6. Development of lines of communication with local employers and a system by which student qualifications can be described. (These two things are also listed as developmental jobs at the national level in A3 and A4, but until some national source produces, the local man is going to have to do this job himself. When and if the national source does produce, the local man is going to have to apply that system. Either way, part of the job is local.)

C7. Study of group data from the records of sending high schools for assistance in curricular planning. (How many of the lambs have had only general math?)

C8. Study of the characteristics of local young people who do not attend junior college.

C9. Follow-up studies of former students for use in curricular revision.

C10. Analytical studies of local employment needs and follow-up of former vocational students for revision of vocational programs.

C11. On-campus, cooperative development of a statement of the goals and criteria for the student personnel program--and collection and interpretation of the evidence obtained when the criteria are applied.

C12. Cooperative application of the criteria of administration (see B6) in a study of college administration in which faculty and students share.

Implications of the Indicated Gaps in Junior College Appraisal Techniques

A few things stand out in the foregoing analysis:

1. Even though the junior colleges probably are no worse than other kinds of colleges in their capacities for appraisal of student characteristics, they have plenty of room for improvement.

2. In seeking needed improvements, there is work enough for everybody--local, state, and national junior college people have their full share of things to do.

3. Cooperation is an idea that has to be put to work. Three-fourths of the junior college needs in appraisal can be met best by means of cooperative action--among different faculty members within the college, among colleges of a small region, among junior colleges and senior colleges of an area, between a national association of junior college people and agencies like the Department of Labor, and so on. The appraisal needs that now are left unmet are complex needs, most of which demand complex solutions--and that usually means a cooperative effort on the part of a lot of different kinds of people.

4. The one place where the largest number of demands for action pile up is the place least well equipped to take action--the student personnel office of the junior college. Notice the number of study needs listed under TYPE C for the attention of

the local junior college. Here is where the shoe pinches. There may not be a single junior college in which the student personnel office is staffed or equipped or budgeted to do half of the studies that the junior college needs to do in order to know its students well enough to give them the kind of education the college is capable of.

Recommendations Which Might Grow Out of These Implications

These suggestions can be drawn from the foregoing analysis:

1. The national association of junior colleges needs to have both budget and influence sufficient to undertake major studies of a cooperative nature in order to provide professional support for personnel people at the state and local levels.

2. Every opportunity for closer cooperative action among the junior colleges of a state or region should be exploited. The notion of cooperation, rather than "independence" needs to become the watchword of junior college people everywhere: cooperation between the junior colleges of an area, between the junior college and its sending high schools, between the junior college and the senior institutions to which it sends transfer students, between the junior college and various elements of the community which it serves.

3. The appraisal needs and study demands upon the junior colleges locally have reached the point at which full-time professional research people are needed--organized in what amounts to a bureau of institutional research--in every junior college. It

would make the most sense to locate a director of institutional research and his helpers within the administrative framework of the student personnel organization of the college, for the research problems most pertinent to the instructional and guidance programs of the college are problems that require obtaining information about students. In the relatively short history of bureaus of institutional research, those which are administratively responsible to either a dean of instruction or a dean of personnel seem more apt to do research than those which are responsible directly to the president or report to the business manager. In the latter case, research very often becomes confused with housekeeping and budget-preparation and is never heard from again.

Centralization of research activities related to student characteristics in something like a bureau of institutional research is far more likely to get the necessary work done than any possible decentralization and broad sharing of personnel research responsibilities among faculty members. In the first place, this kind of research can be done properly only by a professional trained for it--and where else in a junior college faculty is one likely to run across a trained educational researcher with a Ph.D? In the second place, so much of the necessary research involves cooperative action with other agencies and institutions that even a "committee" with the best intentions and the best internal relations could not represent the junior college any better than that other committee assembled its horse.

In short, it takes no more than a brief look at the appraisal problems facing junior colleges to become reasonably certain that the time has come for many junior colleges to add an institutional research office and not be self-conscious about it.

DEVELOPMENTAL CENTER PROJECT: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

James H. Nelson
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In an effort to encourage development of junior college student personnel programs, Dr. Max Raines, Staff Director, and the National Advisory Committee conceived the Developmental Center Project to provide through "model" programs a stimulant to program development in other junior colleges.

The Staff Director selected six junior colleges which were invited to participate as Developmental Centers (three in California and one each in Florida, Michigan and New York). A Developmental Center Coordinator was appointed at each of these colleges, and a Project Coordinator was named whose task it was to work with the Coordinators toward the project objectives established by the Staff Director.

In order to attain the necessary visibility of these "model" programs, each Center was asked to conduct a thorough self-study of its student personnel services and report it fully. As one aspect of the self-study, each college was to assess the usefulness of a tentative set of guidelines for evaluating junior college student personnel programs. These guidelines were developed by Dr. Max Raines and subsequently reviewed in Chicago (April 1960) by a group of junior college student personnel administrators. Both the descriptions of student personnel programs and the methods and procedures used in the self-study were thought to be potentially valuable in promoting program development in other colleges. In addition, it was expected that the self-study process in the six Developmental Centers would lead to identification and resolution of problems in their own programs. Thus, it was anticipated that program development both within and outside the Centers would grow out of this project.

Each Center was also asked to identify within its own program a significant research problem, prepare a proposal and submit it to the United States Office of Education for a grant. Through reporting these efforts, it was hoped that other junior colleges could be helped to appreciate the usefulness of research as a developmental tool and to increase their awareness of opportunities for funding research studies.

In accepting the invitation to participate as a Developmental Center, the institution committed itself to release some time for one of its staff members who would serve as Center Coordinator. In return, the college was to be reimbursed for clerical-secretarial services in an amount not to exceed $300.00, and the Center Coordinator was to receive $50.00 as a token honorarium.

The Project actually got underway in October 1964, although most Centers had committed themselves to participate at a somewhat earlier date. Each Center was visited by the Developmental Center Coordinator whose responsibility it was to help initiate and coordinate the efforts of all six Centers. Because of the tight Project timetable calling for a final report from each Center by March 15, 1965, the Developmental Center Coordinator's primary task was to keep each Center moving toward its goal. The general charge given the Developmental Center Coordinator was (1) to organize and direct a self-study of the entire student personnel program at their institutions by (a) conducting "better" self-studies than are usually made, (b) effectively reporting the process and procedure employed, (c) evaluating the usefulness of the "Developmental Guidelines" in the self-study process and (d) formulating recommendations of value to others who subsequently conduct self-studies of junior college student personnel programs, and (2) to identify a significant researchable problem in the student personnel program and prepare an application for a small research grant from the United States Office of Education.

One of the anticipated values of this Project was to report self-study methods and procedures employed by Centers for consideration by personnel in other junior colleges. Similarly, research proposals were to be reported for examination by others who planned to undertake studies to facilitate program development. Therefore, the efforts and accomplishments of each Center will be recounted briefly.

Center A

This institution served a daytime enrollment of 4,150 students with occupational, technical and transfer curricula. The college was currently in its tenth year of operation and had, from its inception, supported student personnel functions.

The campus is located in a suburban residential area outside the state capitol city. The region served by the college (and its sister campus) has a population of approximately 300,000 with agriculture, food processing, space technology and military installations figuring prominently in the economy.

The majority of the students (57 per cent) pursue transfer programs with the remainder about equally split between terminal programs and "undecided." Approximately three-fourths of the students come from local high schools. The range and level of the scholastic aptitude for the student body is typical of a comprehensive community college.

The approach chosen by Center A was to use the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" (see Appendix D) as a framework for their self-study. This instrument delineated thirty-five functions commonly performed in comprehensive student personnel programs. For each of these functions, Center A took the following steps:

1. Listed the function.
2. Quoted staff assignment of the function if it had been formally assigned.
3. Summarized the procedure for current implementation of the function.
4. Reported reactions of various staff groups to the Center's student personnel program.
5. Reported the usefulness of the Developmental Guidelines in the self-study process.

6. Presented such empirical evidence as could be assembled which would indicate the effectiveness of the function.

7. Listed recommendations for deletion or continuation of function with appropriate modifications.

The procedure followed by Center A consisted of selecting both a general evaluation team and a student personnel staff team to complete the "Inventory of Selected College Functions," plus an additional team whose job it was to tabulate and study these inventory responses. The general evaluation team consisted of ten faculty members, ten counselors, the president of the student body and three administrators. The student personnel staff team was made up of the Dean of Student Activities, Coordinator of Student Activities, a member of the classified staff, the chairman of the psychology department, a counselor and the school nurse. The report and analysis team included three counselors, one division chairman and the Developmental Center Coordinator.

In order to give the entire self-study official sanction and to facilitate acceptance and understanding of the Developmental Center's work, all staff members who were to be involved in the study were invited to a meeting where the Project was fully explained.

A total of 31 persons completed the Inventory--24 were members of the general evaluation team and seven were members of the student personnel team. The heart of the self-study was thought to lie in evidence of agreement or disagreement in staff perceptions of student personnel functions, particularly those differences between the general evaluation team and the student personnel team. Analysis of data was therefore focused primarily upon the comparison of inventory responses for these two groups.

Center A selected as its research problem the determination of comparative effectiveness for individual counseling vs. intensive group counseling. The general research plan calls for random selection of two treatment groups, each consisting of 10 per cent of all new students. One of these would be processed exclusively by individual counseling and the other by group counseling, although requests from the latter group for individual counseling would be honored. The remaining 80 per cent of all new students would serve as a control group to be processed in accordance with existing procedures. Submission of a formal research proposal to the United States Office of Education is expected shortly.

Although the accomplishments of this Center, like those of other Centers, were restricted by availability of time and personnel, the self-study approach appeared to be effective, and some program development did occur. Active involvement in the study of a full cross-section of college personnel, plus some students, seemed to work well. The self-study approach at Center A would be highly generalizable to other institutions and the summary and report form which they used could be adapted for use elsewhere with only minor changes. This would be true even if the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" did not constitute the framework for other self-studies.

Center B

This college served a daytime enrollment of 4,019. It has been in continuous operation since 1913, and during this period of time it has consistently supported student personnel functions. The campus is located in a community of approximately 175,000. The closest city of larger size is about 100 miles distant. The economy is dominated by the agriculture and the oil industries.

Because there are no other local colleges serving the community, 85 per cent of the students come from area high schools. The college reports that 60-75 per cent of the top students from local high schools attend the community college. The range of student abilities and interests is typical of a comprehensive junior college and the distribution of students among curricula is 45 per cent vocational-technical and 55 per cent transfer.

Here, as at Center A, the general approach to the self-study stemmed from the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" to which earlier reference was made. Again the core of the study was a comparison of the perceptions of student personnel functions at that institution which were held by different groups. The three groups with which this study dealt were student personnel staff, faculty and students.

All student personnel staff members completed the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" and a summary of responses was prepared. It was decided that the Inventory in its present form would not be appropriate for use with students and faculty. Therefore, it was modified and the adaptation of the Inventory was administered to a sample of 502 students who had been on campus for at least one semester. It was also administered to 41 faculty members. These faculty respondents represented only 41 per cent of the total group to whom questionnaires were given.

Center B did not carry its self-study beyond the point of collecting judgments about its student personnel functions, tabulating the data and reporting them with a limited amount of interpretation. There was no attempt to document effectiveness of functions with additional empirical evidence. The general self-study method used at Center B could be applied readily to other institutions. The "Student Personnel Questionnaire" developed there could be used by other colleges with a few minor revisions.

The research problem selected by Center B is a comparative analysis of the effectiveness of group programming vs. individual programming. The basic design calls for the use of an experimental treatment group of approximately 200 entering freshmen who would be counseled for registration and programmed in groups of 25-30 each. The control group would consist of all remaining entering freshmen who would receive individual counseling appointments during registration as students have in the past. A draft of the research proposal has been prepared and will soon be submitted to the United States Office of Education.

The problems encountered at Center B were essentially the same as those which beset Center [illegible] There was not adequate time to conduct a comprehensive self-study nor was there necessary freedom from the press of daily routine to permit a thoughtful and creative group effort. Although some problems were highlighted by the study and some program development has been stimulated, a much more thorough evaluation would have been desirable.

Center C

This institution, unlike A and B, is a unique technical junior college of 1,500 students located in a very large metropolitan center. It has been in operation since 1944 and has maintained a program of student personnel services throughout this period of time.

Its institutional image is clearly one of technical preparation for a particular industry and therefore, the students attracted to this college have generally made their education-vocation decisions. The campus is near the area of the city in which is concentrated the industry served by the college. Its relationships to the industry, including placement of graduates, are outstanding.

Because of the fine reputation of this institution, students are attracted to it from all over the world. They are carefully screened and the attrition is much lower than that of most vocational-technical programs in comprehensive community colleges.

This Center also chose to use the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" as a springboard for their self-study. Student personnel staff members completed the Inventory, as did a sample of classroom teachers. Students were also involved in the self-study, but their judgments about student personnel services were obtained by means of an instrument adapted specifically for this purpose.

Center C decided to capitalize on their self-study efforts to prepare for an accreditation visit which their institution will receive next year. They conducted their study and prepared their report utilizing the following basic format for each student personnel function:

1. Statement of objectives
2. Methods of achieving objective
3. Criteria and evaluation of effectiveness
4. Recommendations.

Although comparisons of the evaluative comments of student personnel staff members with those of student and faculty were regarded as important, Center C bore down hard on documentation of the effectiveness of each function with empirical evidence. This was done particularly well in the report on placement services, but in all facets of the study evidence of effectiveness was cited.

The Center Coordinator did oversee the entire study, but the evaluation of each specialized service was assigned to the person having immediate administrative responsibility for it. All sub-studies employed the same format for analysis and reporting, thereby facilitating synthesis of a summary report.

The counseling and guidance program at this institution depends very heavily upon the participation of classroom teachers, since there is only one professional full-time counselor on the staff. Therefore, the problem around which the research proposal was developed is the in-service training of faculty members for performance of their "counseling duties."

The basic plan of the study provides for ten volunteer faculty members to participate in a one-semester program of theoretical and practical experiences designed to improve their competencies as "faculty counselors." The Director of Counseling would conduct the training sessions and participating faculty volunteers would be released from one-fifth of their regular assigned duties for one semester. Changes in student ratings of faculty counseling would be used as the basic criterion for judging the effectiveness of in-service training.

From a practical point of view, Center C may have derived more benefit from their self-study efforts than the other Centers. This was probably due in part to their efforts to make this one study satisfy both Developmental Center commitments and requirements of the impending accreditation visit. Other institutions contemplating self-studies of their student personnel functions could readily adapt the methods and procedures which were used.

Center D

The college at which this Center was located has been in operation since 1922 and presently serves 6,000 daytime students. During most of its history, emphasis has been placed upon transfer preparation, but programs of vocational-technical education and general education are now receiving increasing emphasis. Student personnel services have benefited by both leadership and financial support over the years and the resulting program is regarded as one of strength. The community served by this college is urban with a population of over 400,000. The city in which it is located is the third largest in the state. The area is an automotive manufacturing center with a concentration of large factories and heavy industry.

The college is located on a modern, attractive campus which is shared with a branch of the state university. The students are similar to those in other comprehensive community colleges. Nearly 40 per cent are graduates from public schools within the city and an additional 31 per cent come from other schools in the county. Seventy per cent of the students were in the upper half of their high school graduating classes.

For several reasons this Center chose not to use the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" as the framework for their self-study. First, pre-testing of the instrument occurred there, and thus its use would essentially duplicate an earlier effort. Secondly, the student personnel staff at this institution has been regularly involved in various aspects of in-service training and program development for a number of years, and they felt that an inventory approach to self-study would not carry them beyond their present accomplishments.

Under the leadership of the Center Coordinator, the staff examined several courses of action open to them and chose on that initially involved only informal round-table discussions of various aspects of the student personnel program. These meetings were voluntary and occurred during the lunch hour, to which individuals brought their sack lunches. There was no formal structure for the meetings.

Out of these meetings there soon emerged a major concern with the question of how to maintain a high quality operation in spite of increasing enrollments. This was broken down into a number of specific problem areas and staff members involved themselves in actual study of the problems that were of most concern to them. At this point, they employed surveys, questionnaires, basic data tabulations, interviews and other techniques suitable to the questions they sought to answer. Evidence thus gained was summarized and reported back to the entire staff at sack-lunch meetings.

The proposed research project for this Center pertains to the use of educational television for inducting students into the college. The research design provides for selection of a group of students who would then be inducted into the college by open circuit television. These students would be matched with a control group inducted in the usual way. Comparisons between the two groups would be made at the close of the fall semester. Program changes, accuracy of completed registration forms, student satisfaction with the procedure used, and other criteria would be considered.

A local commercial television station has agreed to cooperate in this experiment and plans have been made for producing the videotapes. The research proposal will be sent to the United States Office of Education in the near future.

Several significant changes were made in the student personnel operations of this institution even before the close of the self-study. In addition, recommendations for other changes were formulated which will probably be adopted at a later date.

Center E

This college opened its doors for the first time in 1948, and it now serves 6,100 daytime students with both transfer and occupational curricula. The college is located on the fringe of a large, rapidly growing metropolitan area. The space technology industry, other manufacturing, tourism and entertainment, building construction and merchandising are all important elements in the local economy.

The vocational-technical programs at this institution number over fifty and range from high level technical programs of two full years in length to short term courses of only nine weeks. The strength of the program is reflected by the fact that half of the student body is enrolled in it with the other half in transfer programs.

Although students from all over the world are enrolled, most come from local high schools. The range of ability and achievement for these students is comparable to other comprehensive community colleges.

Student personnel services have continued to receive administrative support throughout the history of the college. However, unlike Center D, which structured its self-study to advance them from their present high level of program development, Center E was forced to do a lot of spade work before it could establish a framework from which a meaningful self-study could be made. This was due primarily to the absence of any clear-cut statement of what was officially expected as a total student personnel program at that institution.

Although the "Inventory of Selected College Functions" was used as a point of departure, the major efforts of the student personnel staff were directed to the task of forging a "model program." The entire student personnel staff participated in this effort, and a set of major functional goals for the program were identified and accepted.

Having reached general agreement upon the "ideal student personnel program" for this college, the staff then used this model as a yardstick by which to assess the adequacy of their existing program. One particularly interesting aspect of this evaluation was their use of a "Blue Ribbon Committee." This Committee represented all levels of college personnel including the governing board, students, secretarial-clerical personnel, a division chairman, high school counselors, one former student personnel staff member and a personnel manager from a local industry.

The Committee reviewed the model, asked questions of student personnel resource people who were present and then recorded their judgments about its validity as well as the adequacy of the existing program. Although the task attempted by this Committee could not be completed adequately during the four-hour meeting which was held, this novel approach appeared very promising.

This Center plans to prepare a research proposal which will enable the role expectancies for counselors to be assessed. The differences among role expectancies held by students, administrators, teachers and student personnel workers will comprise the heart of the study. As yet, no formal draft of a research proposal has been submitted by the Center.

The self-study efforts at this institution appear to have been quite effective, but they were also highly specific to the institution in many respects. However, the general approach of constructing a model against which to evaluate the existing program can be readily adapted to other junior colleges. The evaluation of this Center was based almost exclusively upon opinion, although some additional empirical evidence was submitted.

Center F

This junior college was established in 1927 and has grown to an enrollment of 6,400. It is located in a metropolitan area of approximately 1,000,000 residents where the tourist industry is very strong.

Recently the college has been involved in expansion to a three-campus operation. It is predominantly a transfer-oriented college with an acknowledged aversion for "sub-collegiate" level programs in vocational-technical education. Most students are from local high schools and their ability achievement characteristics are similar to students in other junior colleges. The student personnel program appears to have kept pace with growth of the institution, and it enjoys the reputation of being a strong program.

Student personnel staff members of this Center completed the "Inventory of Selected College Functions," but this was not a major influence in the development of their self-study. The approach which was used is described by the Center Coordinator as "three-pronged." The first step consisted of making a thorough review of all previous research studies conducted at the college and summarizing findings relevant to the current study. The second phase was directed at providing current information about student personnel functions. This led to the development of a questionnaire by the members of the student personnel staff. An unusual feature of the questionnaire will permit comparisons to be made longitudinally within the college as well as providing a basis for comparison at the state level.

The last phase of the self-study is aimed at pulling together all other empirical data which indicate the effectiveness of student personnel functions at that college.

The research problem selected by this Center is to determine the impact of existing probation procedures upon scholastic performance of students. A draft of the research proposal has not yet been received.

It is difficult to assess the appropriateness of this Center's self-study efforts for other colleges, as they are still incomplete. The questionnaires which were developed, however, could be readily adapted for use elsewhere.

General Evaluation of Developmental Center Project

The accomplishments of the six Developmental Centers, though modest, may be described as significant and encouraging in light of the general conditions under which Centers operated. One critical problem which they all faced was the matter of insufficient time. October 1964 to March 1965 simply wasn't enough time to permit doing many of the things most Centers would like to have done as part of their self-studies.

Second, the timing itself was a source of difficulty because the interval during which the study was in progress overlapped the closing of one semester and the opening of another with all of the attendant pressures upon student personnel staffs.

Third, despite the understanding that time was to have been released for the Center Coordinators during the study, they generally carried all of their usual responsibilities, plus the additional Center burdens.

Fourth, there was virtually no financial support for the Development Center Project, and therefore, any costs incurred beyond the $300.00 for clerical-secretarial services and supplies had to be met by the individual colleges. Since they had not budgeted for such expense, this eliminated many possibilities from consideration.

Finally, every institution experienced some problems in which the Center Coordinators and/or their staffs were enmeshed, such as expansion from single to multiple campus operations, accommodation of unexpected enrollment, or carrying extra duties of unfilled staff positions.

But in spite of these problems, the Centers did accomplish something worthwhile. All reported that the process of evaluation was valuable as an in-service training experience for the student personnel staffs and that involvement of students and faculty had increased general understanding of student personnel functions at their respective colleges.

Several specific techniques or methods of self-evaluation were evolved which have potential usefulness for other institutions. These include development of a number of _ad hoc_ instruments for collecting data as well as innovations such as the use of "sack lunch" meetings and Blue Ribbon Committees.

There were also several self-study plans reported which would be highly generalizable to other institutions. These include the procedures for analyzing each student personnel function employed by Centers A and C as well as the use of a "model" program by Center E.

Another surprising accomplishment of the Centers was the preparation of complete research proposals in draft form by four of the six Centers. One Center has obtained a National Defense Education Act grant for an experimental program in group guidance. Others have submitted grant proposals to the United States Office of Education.

All Centers have reported improvements or plans for improvements in their student personnel programs which derive from their participation as Developmental Centers. One Center established a permanent committee to evaluate student personnel services and recommend improvements. Another is initiating the development of a stronger occupation information program; a third devised a system of using test data available on the high school transcripts and thus was able to eliminate an expensive general entrance testing program.

It is evident that participation in the Developmental Center Program was itself a powerful stimulant to program development. Gains made were accomplished by dint of hard work and enthusiasm. With additional time and resources, the prospects for return on this type of activity look very good.

Perhaps the highlight of the Developmental Center Project came when the Coordinators met for two days to report their progress. The exchange of ideas and the mutual exploration of common problems which occurred were invigorating to all who were in attendance including the Staff Director. Undoubtedly, there was a carry-over from this meeting to the individual colleges.

It is apparent from this limited project that there is both a keen interest in program development among junior college student personnel workers and a regrettable restriction of its expression. Ironically, evaluation and program development seem most likely to occur when a staff has a program well in hand. Those programs that fumble along from day to day in a harassed effort to keep from falling apart appear to be the least likely candidates for voluntary efforts at program development.

Institutions or agencies considering the establishment of developmental centers may want to consider these ten guidelines which have grown out of this initial experience.

Guidelines for the Establishment of Developmental Centers

1. Need for Definite Center Commitment. Centers should only be established where institutions are willing to invest some of their own resources in the Developmental Center's efforts. However, before an institution commits itself to serving as a Developmental Center, it should clearly understand what is expected of it, including the extent of its financial and staff commitment.

2. Well-defined Center Tasks. The area in which a Developmental Center's work will be concentrated should be specified and delimited prior to establishing the Center. Such delimitation should be as specific as possible while preserving necessary freedom for creative work. If the developmental effort becomes too diffuse, the accomplishments are likely to be disappointing.

3. Center Director or Coordinator. The selection of a Center Coordinator or Director should be cooperatively determined by the administration of the institution and those responsible for administering the grant program. This should help assure that the Center Coordinator will have the necessary research competence and other special skills.

Because of possible encroachment upon time which should be given to Center work, the use of part-time Center Coordinators may not be desirable. Instead, full-time assignment of personnel to the Center might be accomplished by release of a staff member who would serve as Center Director or Coordinator, with half of his salary to be paid by the host institution and the other half by the project grant.

4. Advisory-consultant Services. An attempt should be made to determine the general type of advisory and consultative assistance which will be required by each Center and whenever possible provisions should be made for obtaining these resources at the time the Center commitment is made.

5. Coordinator of All Centers' Efforts: Master-planning. In order that efforts of individual Centers complement one another and collectively make a substantial developmental contribution, there is a need for master-planning and coordination. The overall plan should be made clear to each participating Center.

6. Multi-institutional Efforts. Individual Centers should be encouraged to involve other nearby institutions in their developmental work because of the value, and frequently the necessity, of formulating inter-institutional attacks upon problems. This would also broaden the base of participation in developmental work and increase the impact of such efforts.

7. Length of Center Commitment. The interval of time for which a Developmental Center shall be under commitment should be consistent with the accomplishments expected of it. If research is involved, time must be provided for preliminary planning, re-

finement of research problems, formulation of research designs, collection of data, etc.

8. Financial Support of Research. If a Center is expected to conduct research for which outside funding will be necessary, it should be made clear how and when these funds are to be obtained. It is not reasonable to expect Centers to invest resources in the development of research proposals only to have them "die on the vine" for lack of funds.

9. Location of Centers. If the basic purpose of establishing Developmental Centers is to stimulate research and developmental work in junior colleges, it would seem most effective to locate these Centers on junior college campuses. Provision could be made to "import" specialists from senior colleges and universities as needed.

If developmental work will involve extensive student and staff participation at the host institutions, Centers should be established where there exists a pervasive commitment to search for better answers to educational problems and where self-study is not too threatening.

10. Data Processing Equipment. If developmental work will involve large-scale data processing operations, Centers probably should be established at institutions which have the necessary data processing equipment, knowledgeable computer personnel and available "running time."

Recommendations

Based upon the work of the six Developmental Centers described in this chapter, the following recommendations seem warranted:

1. The "Inventory of Selected College Functions" should be refined, printed and made available to those who are charged with evaluation and development of junior college student personnel programs. Further, it should be obtainable in quantity at a reasonable cost for use by junior colleges in evaluating their student personnel programs. Its usefulness to Developmental Center staffs in conducting their self-studies was readily apparent throughout this Project and other colleges would undoubtedly find it valuable also.

2. A concerted effort should be made to obtain money which could be used to assist junior colleges in the development of their student personnel programs. Even a small sum of money may be sufficient to help initiate efforts at self-study and program development which otherwise would not be undertaken. This was clearly evident from the experiences of the six Developmental Centers.

3. Means should be sought for making outstanding resource personnel available as consultants in junior colleges desiring assistance from "outside experts" in student personnel.

4. Local, state and regional conferences or workshops on evaluation and development of student personnel programs are needed for individuals who have these responsibilities and who would like to receive brief, intensive assistance from highly

competent staffs.

5. Finally, there appears to be a critical need for a large-scale junior college student personnel leadership program similar, perhaps, to the Kellogg Leadership Program.

POTENTIALITIES FOR CREATIVE PROGRAMMING
IN STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

E. G. Williamson
University of Minnesota

Our junior colleges have become the "people's comprehensive colleges" of this century as the Land Grant Universities arose a century ago to serve similar purposes and functions and thus a major reconstruction of student personnel services will be needed in our expanded junior colleges.

The nature of the adolescent is such that he needs all the personnel services in the junior college that have been developed in some large universities. And a reading of the catalogs of a large number of junior colleges shows that they are providing in some form and with some quality the full range of student personnel services. Loans and scholarships, recreational activities, student government, and in some cases housing and employment placement are provided as a normal part of the institutions' obligations as means to development of maturity and intellectual competence, as well as vocational proficiency of its students. It is a truism that the junior college now has accepted the full range of personnel services found a few decades ago only in a handful of the larger universities. And this is as it should be because the first two years of the collegiate experience are trying ones for many students, "trying" not only in the emotional sense, but in the sense of searching for a "best" fitting in classroom curriculum and also for testing of the aspiration for post-college occupations. Indeed, it seems that the greatest prevalence of needs for personnel services are to be found dominantly in the first two years of the collegiate experience. This is not to say that juniors and seniors, and even graduate students, do not need some services. It is rather true that the initiating years of the college experience bring forth stresses and strains; and often confusion and failure, to a greater extent than is experienced by those who survive those first two years and become upperclassmen and thus specialists in some curriculum. The need for these services is so clear that it will not be elaborated here, but rather I assign myself an appraisal of but one established and traditional service--counseling--and then I will introduce the case for two new services.

Expanded Counseling Services

From the early days of the junior college movement, guidance, as it was called then, and now counseling was perceived as the most basic service to students. The "open door" college, for a wide range of aptitudes, provided experiences which served as exploration of assets and liabilities, interests and aptitudes, from which students could make appraisals of their potentiality, either for a specific occupation or occupational field or for transfer to four-year colleges with consequent specialization in subject matter.

Regrettably, to us counseling psychologists "guidance" was too long solely a function of "academic advisers" concerned with aiding students to enroll in those courses required to achieve their self-chosen educational and occupational goals. Psychologists believe that such advising should be preceded, but not supplanted by psychological diagnosis of capabilities and aspirations (Williamson, 1960).

As our democracy comes to depend more upon education at all levels, but especially in junior colleges, to aid the individual in appraising his capacities and discovering his opportunities for work and normal personal development and maturity, counseling will need to be greatly strengthened. In far too many instances, in all types of institutions, counseling is today an initial exploration and goal-selection, within one to two interviews following psychological testing. That is, counseling has become associated with the period of admissions or transfer during which one selects a curriculum, course of study, or special field; then the individual proceeds to engage in the chosen form of education for vocation, in addition to some general courses. If his interest proves to be weak after an actual tryout in courses, then the student usually withdraws from school; but in some instances he returns for further counseling and appraisal of alternative possibilities.

But if the junior or community college is to become universal as the post-high school experience, then counseling needs to be universally established as a continuous appraisal of the student's emerging interests and personal development. I am not referring to therapy, which, of course, is continuous as needed, but rather to that type of counseling which consists of assisting the student to reappraise new tryouts of his capabilities and to reassess alternative adult roles in work and community. That is, for many students a tryout of a year or two (or even less) in a particular curriculum may indicate that what he thought was "sound" interest and potentiality proves to be disappointing and inadequate. These students then need to reassess themselves in terms of the many available training possibilities and thus to discover alternatives, sometimes outside of the original college itself. For example, every counselor knows of the individual student whose interests lie in occupations having to do with the manipulation of tools and machinery, but whose mathematical aptitude is not sufficient to enable him to succeed in an engineering college. These individual students need to consider some type of mechnnical occupation which requires less scholastic aptitude and more manipulative aptitude. If the junior college is to serve such a role of continuous appraisal, then many more adequately trained counselors will be needed in each junior college because we will enroll more borderline students who possess enough ability to merit an initial tryout, but who are borderline in that they do not have quite enough aptitude to complete their chosen course. The nature of the distribution of talent among individuals is of such a character as to leave us always with the "borderline" student, whatever cutoff threshold may be determined by research as required for successful training in junior colleges or in four-year colleges.

Although the modern junior college faculty is committed to teaching rather than research as the modal function, nevertheless each personnel staff requires provisions in time, equipment and retraining for continuous research on the improvement of our means of identifying aptitude, interest and aspiration. Research on the instruments of diagnosis is a fundamental professional responsibility of every counselor and consequently budgets for the counseling staff must include provisions for time, equipment and training, and continuous retraining, if such research is to become a basic function of every counselor. In far too many instances counselors have been trained only to perform techniques of interviewing and testing rather than to follow in the steps of the modern medical doctor, who is trained not only to perform medical services but also to add to the understanding of physiology and pathology through his own research. If counseling is to become more than a technique-bound vocation, it must pattern itself after those professions which require learning and relearning continuously during one's career. The phenomenon of the out-of-date techniques and out-of-date concepts and tasks should not characterize counseling for many more years, as it has in the past when a small number of research-trained counselors did most of the research and other technique-bound counselors were either consumers of research on techniques or did not even read the expanding professional literature at all.

Let me explicate one dimension of my topic which has to do with the relationship between the student personnel point of view with its central emphasis upon development of individuality into humane adult maturity--the ethics of the open-door policy as it influences counseling practices. The open-door policy fails in its purpose if it simply grants to every high school graduate the opportunity to enroll and then fails those who should have not been admitted to a particular course of study or vocational curriculum. The free and open self-selection which has characterized so much of adult education programs is deplorable in terms of the ill-effects upon human aspiration and the self image. Counseling and testing should be used to enlighten the individual (of all ages) with regard to probabilities of success and satisfaction in various curricula, prior to enrollment. This open-door policy should be related to continuous appraisal as the individual progresses, together with aid in helping him to choose alternatives for further tryout. No doubt in many cases there comes a cut-off point beyond which further tryout of alternative curricula would produce diminishing returns, both for the junior college and for the individual. Perhaps in some cases administrative action is indicated, but for the most part the junior college should be a selection process in and of itself under the aegis of a sympathetic and insightful and professionally competent counselor.

As every counselor knows, some individuals base their original selection of a curriculum, or a vocational objective related to a curriculum, upon questionable data. "I want to try it once," appears to be a great American sporting myth, and no doubt this kind of permissive selection is necessary in many cases. But note that what is advocated is enlightened selection, which means that the individual should have available for him some external appraisal of his probabilities of success and satisfaction. This is in the nature of counseling. Experience clearly indicates that not all personal experiments in trying that which appeals currently are worth continuing indefinitely. Clearly, repeated failing is not profitable public policy and it makes little contribution to the individual or to society to aid the individual blindly, or near blindly, initially to select--only to be failed because his selection was not based upon self enlightenment. Therefore, the open-door policy requires available counseling in the early identification of probabilities of success and satisfaction both before enrollment and continuously thereafter, as long as the student is enrolled in the college.

Another dimension of admissions, the role of choice and classification in the open door junior college needs exploration. Some junior colleges have well developed programs for adults which are supplemental and upgrading. That is, they are supplemental to incompleted education in one's vocation or in general education. They are upgrading in that they may serve the function served by medical schools to which doctors return every few years to be brought up to date in the ever increasing knowledge resulting from vigorously prosecuted research. Increasingly we see that obsolescence of ideas and work competencies are just as serious in the full utilization of manpower as are the obsolescence of the products of manufacturing.

But the junior college personnel staff has not exhausted the possibility of organizing an adult testing and counseling service of a new sort, not provided by social work agencies in most cities and yet different from that of the U. S. Employment Service. This may prove to be a specialized form of counseling because those trained in counseling adolescents are usually not informed about the special problems of the adult. But this type of counseling is related to what Myrdal (1963) characterizes as the "under-class" which results from our structural unemployment. Myrdal deals in his usual erudite manner with the seriously neglected side effect of our current economic situation. Everyone knows about the tremendous expansion of new work opportunities resulting from such inventions and innovations as electronics and computers, but expansion of the work opportunity is limited, Myrdal says, to those who have more education than is possessed by many of the currently unemployed. Repeatedly it has been demonstrated that many of the presently unemployed are incompletely educated or completely uneducated. Many of these unemployed individuals have been out of work for so long that they cease to search for employment. Moreover, many unemployed of this character must be retrained or originally trained if they are to be employable for these new jobs presenting higher requirements in terms of skills and competencies. Counselors and junior college teachers need to explore the contributions that we could make to the utilization of this unused and presently unusable manpower. And education or re-education as retraining is necessary for many of the presently uneducated and unemployed to take advantage of our growing wealth. I believe that the junior and community colleges can make substantial contributions to the partial solution of local unemployment because they are sensitive to contemporary societal conditions as they currently reassess their societal mission, in preparation for the great expansion in enrollment of undergraduates. That is, they can pioneer at the same time in new forms of adult education subsequent to adult testing and counseling.

Development of Intellectualism

Perhaps some junior college personnel worker may resist my adding to already overextended duties by suggesting two new student personnel services, which I believe are congruent with the mission of junior and community colleges. One such new service is the personnel workers' efforts to help create and maintain a climate of opinion favorable to motivation on the part of students to become intellectual in their daily living; that is, to learn to think rather than to sloganize or to memorize facts that are unapplied in their daily lives outside of classroom. In this connection the research of Pace and Stern (Pace, 1962; Reisman & Jencks, 1962; Sanford, 1962) identifies students' perception of the phenomenon of intellectualism as a way of living on college campuses. While the Pace-Stern College Characteristic

Inventory has not yet been used, apparently, in formal experiments designed to change aptitudes and perceptions, yet the instrument lends itself to such efforts experimentally to identify induced changes in climates or perceptions of climates.

In my own institution we have programmed many such intellectual efforts over the last dozen years, some of which I describe briefly in a recent book (Williamson, 1961a, Ch. 13). We annually organize, in cooperation with student leaders, a number of activities which contribute to the accomplishment of the intellectual mission of the University and thereby help to create a climate of opinion, and perception, which "teaches" the student to be intellectual throughout the 24 hours of his daily living. A number of years ago, this point of view was first explained (Williamson, 1952; 1957a). It has been my general observation that the intellectual way of living, for many students, has become linked with time, place and agent to the extent that some students never understand the faculty's conception that one carries one's intellectual posture all of the time. In many instances students think of the intellectual life as a posture or style of living that must be assumed only when a professor is "present" or when the student is confronted by a textbook or when he is at his study table or in the library. In his out-of-class activity he is consequently often conditioned to revert to the "normal" unintellectual, or even to an anti-intellectual way of thinking about his personal and daily problems. As far as I know, no one has tested my hypothesis by actually making a content count of conversations in a fraternity house, a dormitory or a rooming house or in the lounge of the student union. But I suspect, from the fragments of conversation that I hear, that the content is not well saturated with things intellectual.

Now it so happens that in the extracurriculum we personnel workers have a wonderful opportunity to saturate the activities and the conversational content with things intellectual. The relaxed, enjoyable "openness" of the extracurriculum lends itself to this kind of manipulation, if we are inventive enough to make the experience so attractive and exciting and immediately rewarding that students experience direct reinforcement of Harold Taylor's contention that the student should be intellectual 24 hours a day. Someone someday may test this hypothesis experimentally. But in the meantime, we have directly observed that some of our intellectual programs conducted by my staff, with the aid of "bright" students and selective faculty members, are a rewarding experience.

Each year gratifying testimony comes from faculty and students. As one history professor said, "For years we have had retreats for recreation of various forms, but this is the first time I have experienced a retreat concerned with things intellectual." Incidentally, this professor delivered a most exciting and stimulating two-hour lecture on the different kinds of history that have been written over the ages. He took the students into his workshop and treated them as though they were intellectually equal, or at least capable of carrying on this high level professional conversation. It was a very exciting experience and immensely rewarding, especially for the professor of history, who had for years refused to devote a weekend to this kind of diversion from his own studious regime.

Creative Uses of Controversy

Because junior and community colleges are readily available to the influences, both constructive and destructive, of the surrounding community, another category of new personnel services may be developed to permit the societal utilization of these institutions for a new kind of preparation for citizenship.

Thomas Jefferson long advocated that the public school should serve as a training agency to prepare citizens for the making of policies governing themselves (Lee, 1961). And now that the junior college is being advocated as a universal necessity, we may anticipate that this new personnel service will be a significant one. The junior college will probably become the one societal agency, in addition to home and church, which is available for the preparation of citizenship decision-making by the largest segment of our population. The Educational Policies Commission referred to intellectual freedom as the mission of the junior colleges and clearly this freedom is needed by all citizens, if they are to participate effectively in the forging of wise policies and decisions in our political democracy. As Fischer (1964) maintains, the schools should be "the instrument of our aspirations [p. 66]."

This new personnel service involves the exploitation of controversy to learn how to controvert in the academic style and manner, as contrasted with that form of controversy in the marketplace, which employs the techniques of hatred, vituperation and emotionalized attacks on the character of opponents. Hofstadter (1963) recalls that "there has always been in our national experience a type of mind which elevates hatred to a kind of creed [p. 37]." These anti-intellectual techniques are especially attractive to those who exploit fears and anxieties in order to gain influence over individuals. In contrast, we personnel workers are given opportunities to train students in thoughtful ways of public controversy rather than the use of such destructive techniques.

Some operating hypotheses are available for the initiation of programming of organized discussion of controversial issues on the campus. For example, in his penetrating analysis of the societal conditions which may have been related to Kennedy's assassination, Commager (1964) sought to "explain" the origin of White Citizens Councils, Birch Society, the Minute Women and similar violent vigilante movements in which educated adults substituted extra-legal controls for the legal apparatus and for the legislative agencies of consensus formation. He hypothesizes that: what we have here is deeply ingrained vanity and arrogance ... fed by isolation; by school histories which teach that we are indeed a peculiar people; by filiopietistic societies which insist that we are somehow superior to all other nations, morally and politically; by a thousand editorials, a hundred thousand radio and television programs, which play up the villainy of our enemies--the Russians, the Chinese, the Cubans--and our own morality and nobility [pp. 4-5].

Our vanity that we are God's chosen people leads to the rationalized justification of violence against the dissenter and the castigating of him as subversive and disloyal. It is a short projection to rationalize the employment of violence and destructive tactics which differ little from those used by the Nazi and the Communist in liquidating the Jews and the "reconstructionists." In order to understand this kind of hate-mentality, every personnel worker should read and reread Eric Hoffer's The True Believer. This is a most insightful description of the mentality of the professional hater, and it will serve as an initiating point in program development.

Now, without undervaluing the classroom social studies as means of avoiding the mentality of the True Believer in our students, I wish to explore the possibility of organizing the extra-curriculum for training students in the "civic virtues," such as fair play to opponents; the wise use of all the data available in relevant documentation and technical studies; the high minded exploration of alternative and competing solutions of issues and controversies; and, in fact, the whole apparatus of the "seminar" with its intellectual analysis of issues and alternative solutions--in depth. This is the method of critical inquiry which employes learning in how to be thoughtful about controversy. As Monypenny

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(1963) says: "What we would desire for all our students is that they learn the methods and habits of independent thought which are the methods of scholarship" [p. 628].

How does one organize controversy in the extracurriculum so that it facilitates learning the virtues of democratic citizenship, especially fair play for one's opponent and the bringing to bear on issues of knowledge rather than vituperation? The opportunity of programming is always current. Every dean of students can readily testify that scarcely a week or month goes by without some controversy erupting into a campaign of hatred against someone. Frequently, it is the dean himself who has triggered such a revolution and controversy by a decision with regard to a leftist speaker students wish to bring to the campus, or the unilateral enactment of rules governing the standards of behavior, or even the expression of an opinion as to the relevancy of a form of expression of points of view in the academic community. The learned critic Gerald W. Johnson (1964) relevantly outlines his own intellectual development of thoughtfulness through the dominant contribution of his collegiate experiences of "how to be politically a free man" [p. 63]. After more than half a century, I well remember the first blinding flash that left me with spots before my eyes. William Louis Poteat, opening his course, an introduction to general biology, remarked, "The first thing to remember, gentlemen, is that until you have learned the facts, you have no right to an opinion" [p. 62].

We need to ask ourselves in our professional roles: how can we win acceptance of such a point of view, that every student needs to learn the relevant facts before he forms his opinions?

Currently, on many campuses controversy rages over what is an appropriate due process in discipline situations and frequently the problem of a free student press becomes a center of controversy. These are all controversies peculiar to the academic community and they are readily available as "field situations" which could be organized and exploited by student leaders, and deans of students, for the learning of the academic method of controversy in contrast with hate campaigns. It surely needs no justification that we exploit the extracurriculum for the purpose of teaching students how to transpose the method of academic inquiry from the classroom to the extra-classroom. To be sure, it is an explosive teaching-learning situation, emotionalized and unpredictable as to form and outcome of the issues, and we may not be ingenious enough to learn how to use controversy for the purpose of learning to use cerebral functioning rather than fisceral tension.

Elsewhere I (1957b; 1961a, Chs. 9, 10, & 11; 1961b) have described, in a preliminary fashion, some of our own experiences over the past two decades in forging such a personnel service for students. Our exercises in creativity were not planned, rather did we inherit controversy and often, in a clumsy way, we helped to create new controversy.

Here are a few illustrations of program techniques developing out of my own administrative experience.

1. Weekend retreats of student leaders, including those who are involved in a current controversy, may be organized into a panel, followed by small buzz sessions, to discuss openly the current controversy on a given campus, in the manner of the academic seminar. The agents involved, both student and staff, contribute information, give reasons for unpopular decision, explain historical development of proprietary and behavior rules, and otherwise take parts in the learning process by objectifying the discussion and removing the emotional components of the controversy, or at least reducing its intensity.

2. Students may be given mimeographed copies of basic documents, such as college charters, stipulating the dean of students' authority to take an action. Moreover, policies governing students' behavior and similar documentations may be explained as relevant to an understanding of an unpopular action or decision.

3. The student newspaper editor should be given background materials relevant to the current controversy, such as the reasons for an unpopular decision, the authority for the decision and the logic and strategy followed by the administrator who made the unpopular decision. (Parenthetically, it is an interesting phenomenon, with unidentified components, that only administrators, hardly ever faculty, make unpopular decisions!) The openness of such information-giving should again help to facilitate learning the academic method of controversy by avoiding name calling, hate-

fulness and vituperation of the individual involved--the avoidance of the use of the scapegoat, in contrast with the academic method of analysis of the issue itself.

4. Professors should be invited to participate in the controversy by taking part in panel discussions, on and off the campus, and otherwise bringing to bear their academic background and intellect concerning the controversy. This is particularly necessary in controverting the issue of freedom of expression of points of view. Professors, learned in the history and development of their own academic freedom, can contribute intellectual depth to the students' discussion of their own desired freedoms.

5. With regard to the issue of due process in discipline decisions, lawyers should be invited to join the controversy to contribute the lawyer's experience concerning the historical forging of legal due process, modified as it must be for use within the academic community. Professors of history can also contribute knowledge in depth about man's long struggle in Western culture for fair due process and freedom of thought. Some analogous reasoning may be generated among students as they seek to enact their own form of due process in the institution's actions concerning freedom of expression, privacy of thought and self-management of behavior both off and on campus.

Many other methods of "educating" for mature and responsible citizenship decision-making await the exercise of imaginative creation by student personnel workers. The continued effort to exploit hate campaigns for the learning of the academic way of controverting, calls, of course, for a good deal of emotional stability and maturity. Furthermore, adolescents [and some A.A.U.P. faculty (Strong, 1963)] are so sensitive to authority figures that sometimes they prefer emotionalized battle rather than the calm, dispassionate, objective academic analysis of issues. Nevertheless, we personnel workers should make our efforts count toward facilitating learning, particularly that learning which takes the form of thoughtful inquiry applied to emotionalized controversy. Perhaps in future years personnel workers will be trained in organizing discussions of the academic type through courses as part of our standard training. This important personnel service, it seems to me, holds great promise for helping the junior college to contribute significantly to the attainment of Jefferson's concepts of informed, enlightened and responsible citizenship participation in governing themselves in our pattern of a democracy.

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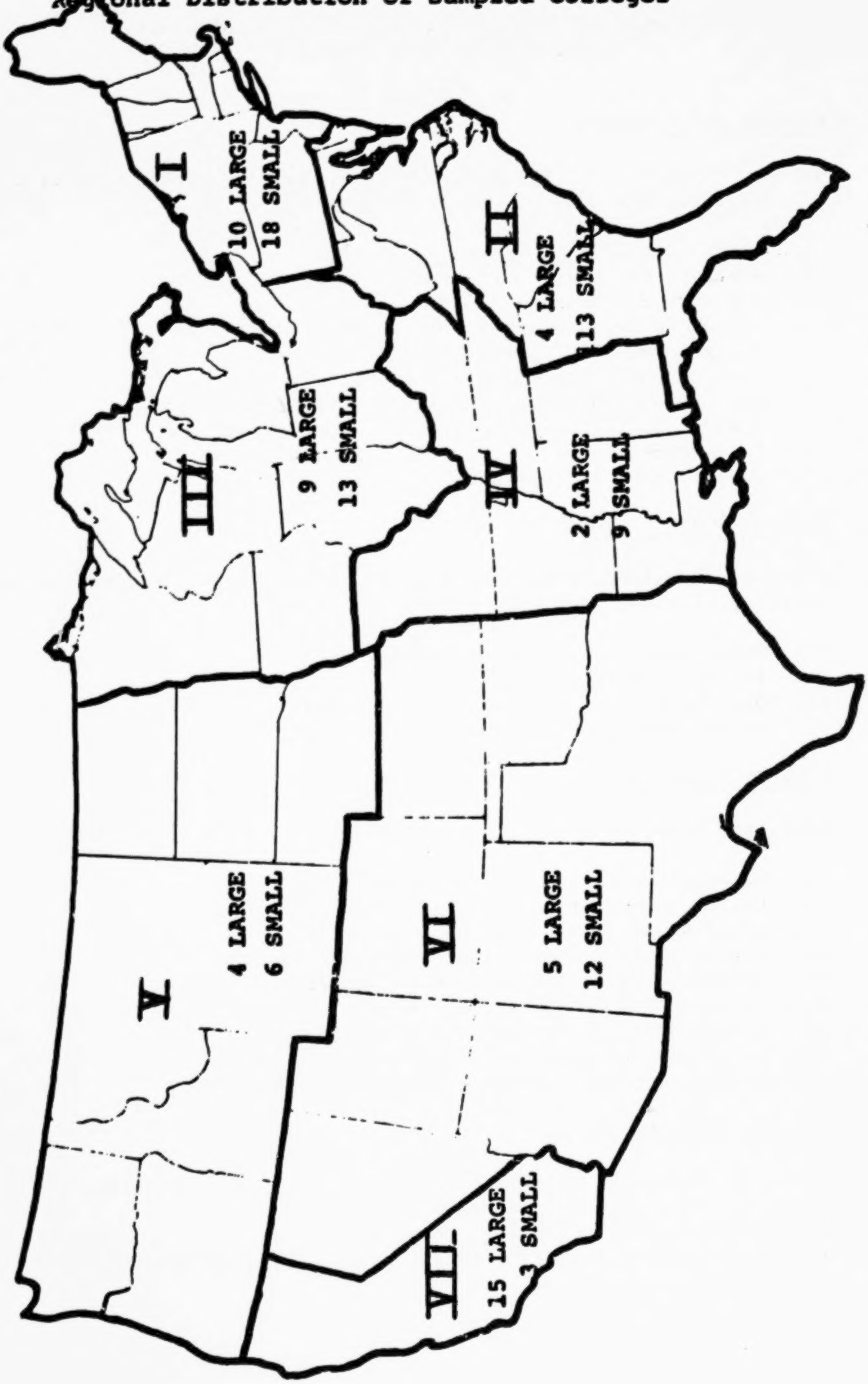
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Regional Distribution of Sampled Colleges


I
10 LARGE
18 SMALL
II
4 LARGE
13 SMALL
III
9 LARGE
13 SMALL
IV
2 LARGE
9 SMALL
V
4 LARGE
6 SMALL
VI
5 LARGE
12 SMALL
VII
15 LARGE
3 SMALL

APPENDIX B

Random Sample of Junior Colleges Having Enrollments in Excess of 1000 Students

I. EASTERN NORTH REGION

Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

1. Auburn Community College (New York)
2. Rockland Community College (New York)
3. New York University at Alfred
4. Mohawk Valley Community College (New York)
5. Bronx Community College (New York)
6. Corning Community College (New York)
7. Pennsylvania State University Ogontz Campus
8. Trenton Junior College (Trenton, New Jersey)
9. Point Park Junior College (Ind. Pennsylvania)
10. Quinnipiac College (Ind. Connecticut)

II. EASTERN SOUTH REGION

Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and the District of Columbia.

11. Miami-Dade Junior College (Florida)
12. St. Petersburg Junior College (Florida)
13. Daytona Beach Junior College (Florida)
14. Junior College of Broward County (Florida)

III. MIDWEST NORTH REGION

Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Iowa, and Minnesota.

15. Muskegon Community College (Michigan)
16. Lansing Community College (Michigan)
17. Grand Rapids Junior College (Michigan)
18. Chicago City Junior College Southeast Branch
19. Chicago City Junior College Wilson Branch
20. Chicago City Junior College Loop Branch
21. Chicago City Junior College Wright Branch
22. Milwaukee Institute of Technology (Wisconsin)
23. Milwaukee School of Engineering (Ind. Wisconsin)

IV. MIDWEST SOUTH REGION

Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi

24. Jasper County College (Missouri)
25. Metropolitan Junior College of Kansas City (Missouri)

V. WESTERN NORTH REGION

Washington, Oregon, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska.

26. Columbia Basin College (Washington)
27. Grays Harbor College (Washington)
28. Ricks College (Ind. Idaho)
29. Highline College (Washington)

VI. WESTERN SOUTH REGION

Arizona, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, Kansas, Texas, and Oklahoma.

30. Mesa College (Colorado)
31. Victoria College (Texas)
32. Del Mar College (Texas)
33. San Antonio Junior College (Texas)
34. Hutchinson Junior College (Kansas)

VII. WESTERN COAST REGION

35. Ventura College
36. Los Angeles Harbor College
37. Oceanside-Carlsbad College
38. Sacramento City College
39. Pasadena City College
40. Palomar Junior College
41. San Bernardino College
42. Fullerton Junior College
43. Los Angeles Trade-Technical College
44. Los Angeles Pierce College
45. Merced College
46. Modesto Junior College
47. Santa Monica City College
48. Napa College
49. Vallejo Junior College

APPENDIX B

Random Sample of Junior Colleges Having Enrollments of less Than 1000 Students

I. EASTERN NORTH REGION

Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

1. Adirondack Community College (New York)
2. Cazenovia College (New York)
3. Centenary College for Women (New Jersey)
4. Colby Junior College (New Hampshire)
5. Fisher Junior College (Mass.)
6. Greenfield Community College (Mass.)
7. Green Mountain College (Vermont)
8. Hershey Junior College (Penns.)
9. Jefferson Community College (New York)
10. Lasell Junior College (Mass.)
11. Leicester Junior College (Mass.)
12. Mater Christi Seminary (New York)
13. Miner Institute (New York)
14. Mount Ida Junior College (Mass.)
15. Norwalk State Technological Institute (Conn.)
16. Pennsylvania State University Hazelton Campus
17. Ulster County Community College (New York)
18. Wadhams Hall (New York)

II. EASTERN SOUTH REGION

Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and the District of Columbia.

19. Andrew College (Georgia)
20. Columbus College (Georgia)
21. Ferrum Junior College (Virginia)
22. George Mason College of University of Virginia
23. Lake City Junior College Forest Ranger School (Florida)
24. Louisburg College (North Carolina)
25. North Florida Junior College
26. Oak Ridge Military Institute (North Carolina)
27. Prince George's Community College (Maryland)
28. Rosenwald Junior College (Florida)
29. Southern Technical Institute (Georgia)
30. Technical Institute Old Dominion College (Virginia)
31. Villa Julie College (Maryland)

III. MIDWEST NORTH REGION

Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Iowa, and Minnesota.

32. Canton Community College (Illinois)
33. Clarinda Community College (Iowa)
34. Emmetsburg Community College (Iowa)
35. Fort Dodge Community College (Iowa)
36. Gogebic Community College (Michigan)
37. Immaculata College (Illinois)
38. Iowa State Technical Institute (Iowa)
39. Mason City Junior College (Iowa)
40. Mt. Vernon Community College (Illinois)
41. Northwestern Michigan College (Michigan)
42. The Felician College (Illinois)
43. University of Wisconsin Kanosha Center
44. Virginia Junior College (Minn.)

IV. MIDWEST SOUTH REGION

Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi.

45. Arkansas State College
46. East Central Junior College (Miss.)
47. Lee Junior College (Tenn.)
48. Meridian Municipal Junior College (Miss.)
49. Mississippi Delta Junior College
50. Sacred Heart Junior College (Alabama)
51. Snead Junior College (Alabama)
52. Southern Union College (Alabama)
53. Utica Junior College (Miss.)

V. WESTERN NORTH REGION

Washington, Oregon, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska.

54. Clatsop College (Oregon)
55. McCook College (Nebraska)
56. Northwest Community College (Wyoming)
57. Sheridan College (Wyoming)
58. Southwestern Oregon College
59. York College (Nebraska)

VI. WESTERN SOUTH REGION

Arizona, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, Kansas, Texas, and Oklahoma.

60. Alvin Junior College (Texas)
61. Bacone College (Oklahoma)

62. Butler County Junior College
63. Central College (Kansas)
64. Clarendon Junior College (Texas)
65. Connors State Agricultural College (Oklahoma)
66. Cooke County Junior College (Texas)
67. Independence Community College (Kansas)
68. Murray State Agricultural College (Oklahoma)
69. Navarro Junior College (Texas)
70. Oklahoma Military Academy
71. Snow College (Utah)

VII. WESTERN COAST REGION

72. Gavilan Joint Junior College
73. Palo Verde College
74. Victor Valley College

APPENDIX C

Larger Colleges

Comparisons of the Sampled Population with the Total Population (as reflected in the 1964 Junior College Directory) for Colleges Having Enrollments in Excess of 1000 Students

	Sample		Total Population	
	N	%	N	%
Total Enrollment (1963)				
1000 - 1999	18	37	85	42.5
2000 - 2999	10	20	42	21
3000 - 3999	4	8	18	9
4000 - 4999	3	6	12	6
5000 - 5999	3	6	8	4
6000 - 6999	1	2	6	3
7000 - 7999	0	0	3	1.5
8000 - 8999	2	4	4	2
9000 and over	8	16	21	10.5
Median	2700		2437	
Inter-Quartile Range - Q3	1666		1625	
Q1	5530		4500	
Age				
Before 1920	7	14	28	14
1920-1929	12	24	49	24.5
1930-1939	6	12	27	13.5
1940-1949	9	18	38	19
1950-1959	9	18	28	14
1960 and after	6	12	29	14.5
Median	1938		1936	
Inter-Quartile Range - Q3	1924		1924	
Q1	1952		1953	
Control				
Public	45	92	175	87.5
Independent	4	8	24	12
AAJC Membership				
Member	45	92	177	88.5
Non-Member	4	8	22	11
Type of Institution				
Co-Educational	48	98	196	98
All Male	1	2	2	1
All Female	--	--	1	.5
Accreditation				
Regional	39	80	160	80
Non-Regional	10	20	39	19.5

APPENDIX C

Smaller Colleges

Comparisons of the Sampled Population with the Total Population (as reflected in the 1964 Junior College Directory) for Colleges Having Enrollments of Less Than 1000 Students

	Sample		Total Population	
	N	%	N	%
Total Enrollment (1963)				
Not reported			5	1
Under 100	7	9	66	13.6
100 - 199	6	8	73	15.1
200 - 299	12	16	90	18.7
300 - 399	11	15	67	13.9
400 - 499	13	18	63	13
500 - 599	9	12	37	7.6
600 - 699	5	7	31	6.4
700 - 799	3	4	19	3.9
800 - 899	2	3	16	3.3
900 and over	6	8	17	3.5
Median	408		312	
Inter-Quartile Range - Q3	240		150	
Q1	544		499	
Age				
Before 1920	6	8	70	14.5
1920-1929	20	27	102	21
1930-1939	12	16	78	16.2
1940-1949	11	15	73	15
1950-1959	15	20	98	20.3
1960 and after	10	14	63	13
Median	1938		1937	
Inter-Quartile Range - Q3	1926		1925	
Q1	1954		1954	
Control				
Public	49	66	239	49.4
Independent	25	34	245	50.6
AAJC Membership				
Member	57	77	343	70.9
Non-Member	17	23	141	29.1
Type of Institution				
Co-Educational	57	77	364	75.2
All Male	6	8	43	8.9
All Female	11	15	77	15.9
Accreditation				
Regional	37	50	243	50.2
Non-Regional	37	50	241	49.8

APPENDIX D

Appraisal and Development
of
JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

An independent study established under a two-year grant from Carnegie Corporation of New York.

INVENTORY *of* STAFF RESOURCES *of* SELECTED COLLEGE FUNCTIONS

developed by
MAX R. RAINES, Staff Director
for the NATIONAL COMMITTEE
October, 1964

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FOREWORD

Junior colleges provide a variety of functions to support instruction, meet student needs, and foster institutional development. The nature, administrative classification, and staffing of these functions varies considerably. Many differences are probably related to variations in size, type, location, institutional commitment, etc. To clarify these differences and related factors, we have developed an Inventory of Selected College Functions and an Inventory of Staff Resources.

In order that we may supplement written responses, more than one-third of the one hundred fifty participating junior colleges will be visited by experienced junior college practitioners who have recently participated in an intensive workshop to prepare for the follow-up visitations. Information obtained from the Inventories and our visitations will be carefully analyzed and will serve as an important resource for the recommendations of our National Committee. It is anticipated that published recommendations of the committee will ultimately lead to additional assistance for programming at the local, state, and national levels.

We believe you will find your participation to be professionally stimulating and we sincerely appreciate your cooperation!

Max R. Raines
Staff Director for the
National Committee

DIRECTIONS

The ISCF contains a list of thirty-five functions. It is vital that you READ THE DESCRIPTIONS OF THE FUNCTIONS CAREFULLY BEFORE RESPONDING. While the descriptions are intended to be as definitive as possible, they are not definitions; consequently, you should read for the central theme and intent of the description. After reading the description you are asked to judge whether or not the described function is a part of your total college program.

If the function is not an implemented function, please indicate your judgment of the need for implementation by selecting the appropriate response symbol (alphabetical letter).

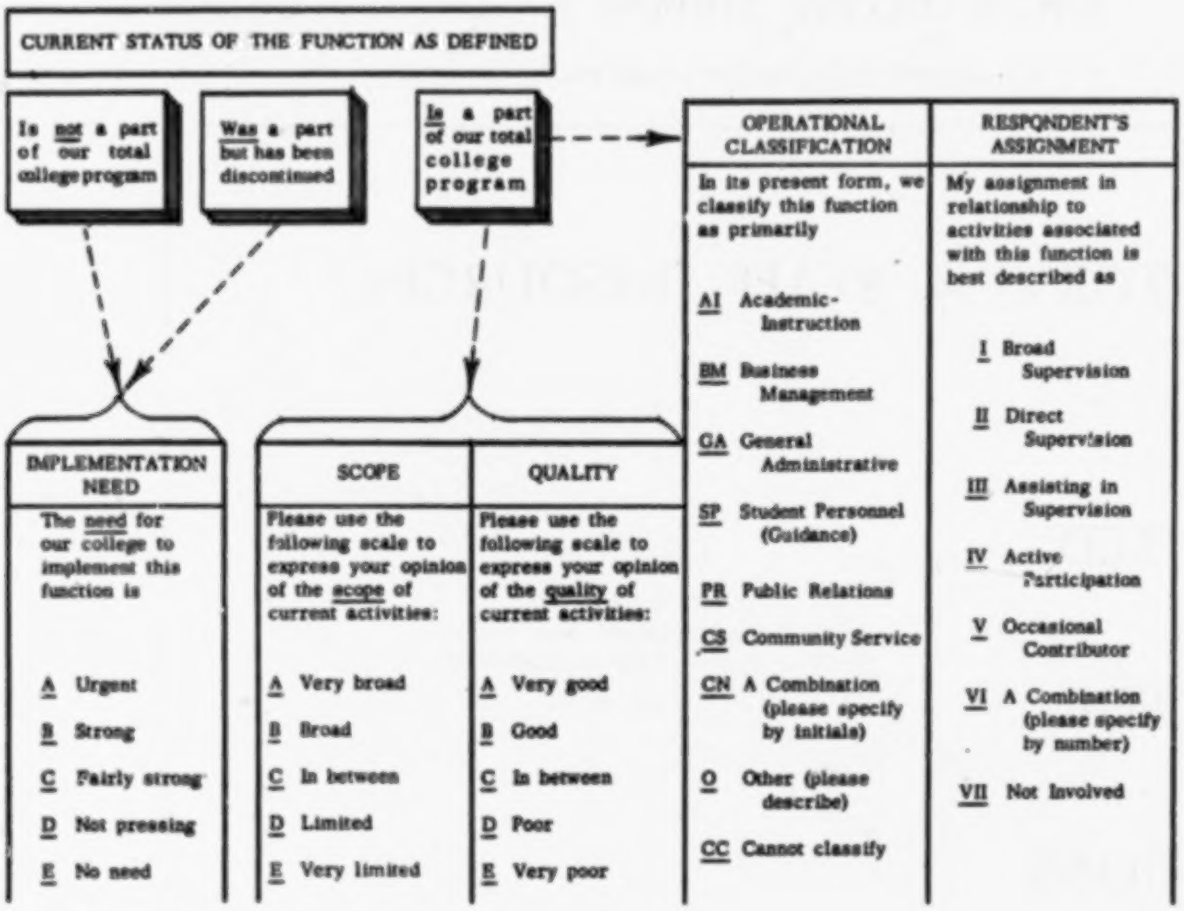
If in your judgment the function is a part of your total college program, you are asked (1) to judge both the current scope and quality of the activities associated with the function, (2) to designate the classification of the function, and (3) to select the best description of your assignment in relationship to the activities.

Space has been provided for clarification of your responses and you are encouraged to write in comments throughout the Inventory.

On the next page we have provided two illustrations. Please examine the illustrations briefly before proceeding. As you become familiar with response patterns, your facility in indicating your responses will increase rapidly.

INVENTORY OF SELECTED COLLEGE FUNCTIONS

RESPONSE PATTERNS


CURRENT STATUS OF THE FUNCTION AS DEFINED
Is not a part of our total college program
Was a part but has been discontinued
Is a part of our total college program
IMPLEMENTATION NEED
The need for our college to implement this function is
A Urgent
B Strong
C Fairly strong
D Not pressing
E No need
SCOPE
Please use the following scale to express your opinion of the scope of current activities:
A Very broad
B Broad
C In between
D Limited
E Very limited
QUALITY
Please use the following scale to express your opinion of the quality of current activities:
A Very good
B Good
C In between
D Poor
E Very poor
OPERATIONAL CLASSIFICATION
In its present form, we classify this function as primarily
AI Academic-Instruction
BM Business Management
GA General Administrative
SP Student Personnel (Guidance)
PR Public Relations
CS Community Service
CN A Combination (please specify by initials)
O Other (please describe)
CC Cannot classify
RESPONDENT'S ASSIGNMENT
My assignment in relationship to activities associated with this function is best described as
I Broad Supervision
II Direct Supervision
III Assisting in Supervision
IV Active Participation
V Occasional Contributor
VI A Combination (please specify by number)
VII Not Involved

Illustrations

27

B
Need
✓ is not a function
— was a function, but discontinued

Is a function
(No response is provided here because it is not an implemented function.)
Scope
Quality
Classification
Assignment

Comment: We provide some listings but we need to initiate supervision. Some of the landlords are raising cain with members of the Board of Education.

INTERPRETATION: The respondent, after reading the description of the Off-Campus Housing Function, judges that in its present form the function cannot be considered as a part of the total college program. His rating of the need for implementation as well as his comments indicate that some action is needed in the immediate future.

4

Need
— is not a function
— was a function, but discontinued

Is a function
D Scope
D Quality
GA Classification
I - II - IV Assignment

Comment: We used to do this pretty well until we were swamped with applicants. The registrar and I have tried to see each student applicant but we were outnumbered this summer.

INTERPRETATION: The chief administrator of this small junior college indicates that the Applicant Consulting Function is a part of their college program. He further indicates that his assignment (I, II, and IV) is both supervisory and active participant and classifies the function as General Administration (GA). Because of enrollment pressures and staff limitations, he is not satisfied with the scope (Response D) nor the quality (Response D) of the current efforts.

1. THE PRE-COLLEGE INFORMATIONAL FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to communicate with prospective students as well as those closely related to them (e.g. teachers, family members, etc.) and through such communication (1) to encourage post-high school education, (2) to describe junior college opportunities, (3) to interpret any requirements for entering the junior college or its various programs, and (4) to identify sources of assistance for reaching a decision about college attendance. Illustrated Assignments: conferring with high school groups.....preparing descriptive brochures.....handling correspondence requesting college information.....etc.

2. THE EDUCATIONAL TESTING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to assess by standardized testing procedures those abilities, aptitudes, achievements, and other personality variables which (1) are considered significant in educational and vocational appraisal of students and/or (2) those which are helpful in appraising their educational progress at the college. Illustrated Assignments: appraising a variety of potential measuring instruments.....administering tests to groups of students.....developing normative data for the college.....etc.

3. THE APPLICANT APPRAISAL FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to obtain, organize, and appraise significant background information for each student to determine (1) his eligibility for admission to either the college or to various courses and curricula within the college, (2) his probable chances for success in various courses and curricula, and (3) any conditions or restrictions to be imposed on his admission or re-admission. Illustrated Assignments: evaluating transcripts and test results.....serving on an admissions committee.....preparing case appraisals.....etc.

4. THE APPLICANT CONSULTING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to schedule and conduct conferences with applicants (individually or in small groups) who may seek or need staff assistance pertaining to their (1) admission to the college, (2) anticipated problems in attending college, (3) selection of vocational and educational objectives, or (4) selection of courses to fulfill curricular requirements. Illustrated Assignments: interpreting test results to applicants.....interpreting curricular requirements.....assisting students in selecting courses.....etc.

5. THE STUDENT INDUCTIVE FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to acquaint entering students (just prior to class attendance) with the plant and staff resources, student activities, college procedures, and regulations of the college. Illustrated Assignments: training student guides.....interpreting student services.....explaining college expectations and procedures.....etc.

6. THE STUDENT REGISTRATION FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to (1) officially register students, (2) collect demographic data, (3) expedite academic regulations, and (4) initiate and maintain official records of each student's academic progress and status. Illustrated Assignments: designing registration forms and data processing procedures.....processing class changes and withdrawals.....processing instructor's grades.....etc.

7. THE PERSONNEL RECORDS FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to establish and maintain a cumulative record of student development as reflected in skills he develops, activities in which he participates, employment in which he is involved, awards he receives, and judgment rating of staff members. Illustrated Assignments: developing system for accumulating information.....maintaining policy for confidential handling of student personnel records.....preparing recommendations for senior colleges.....etc.

8. THE GROUP ORIENTING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to provide organized group experiences for students conducted by college staff members, focused upon needs of the student and with emphasis upon (1) adjustment to the college program, (2) formulation of realistic and satisfying plans for the future, and (3) effective use of college and community resources. Illustrated Assignments: conducting orientation classes.....interpreting occupational information.....teaching effective study skills..... planning course content.....etc.

9. THE STUDENT ADVISORY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to bring each student into individual and continuing contact with a college staff member qualified to advise the student regarding such matters as (1) selection of courses for which the student is eligible and which are consistent with his curricular choice as well as any occupational or senior college preferences he may have, (2) evaluation of academic progress, (3) effective methods of study, and (4) identification of specific resources within the college or community that might meet the special needs of the student. Illustrated Assignments: scheduling advisees in classes..... interpreting senior college requirements.....interpreting study skills to individual advisees.....etc.

10. THE STUDENT COUNSELING FUNCTION. Those consulting activities of professionally trained counselors designed to aid students who seek or need special assistance in (1) formulating vocational and educational goals, (2) clarifying their basic values, attitudes, interests and abilities, (3) identifying and resolving problems which may be interfering with their educational progress, and (4) identifying appropriate sources of assistance for resolving more intensive personal problems. Illustrated Assignments: administering and interpreting diagnostic tests.....conducting counseling interviews.....interpreting occupational information.....etc.

11. THE CAREER INFORMATION FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to obtain, analyze, and interpret occupational information and trends to students, advisors, instructors, and counselors. Illustrated Assignments: identifying useful sources of occupational data.....analyzing published research on manpower needs.....developing effective methods for disseminating occupational information.....etc.

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12. THE BASIC SKILL DIAGNOSTIC FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to diagnose, through testing and other means, deficiencies of students in those basic skill areas that are pre-requisite to their academic progress in the college or in occupations which they may have selected. Illustrated Assignments: diagnosing basic skill deficiencies.....interpreting deficiencies to students.....providing individual assistance to students.....etc.

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13. THE BASIC SKILL DEVELOPMENTAL FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to provide competent and systematic assistance for students with diagnosed deficiencies in basic academic skills. Illustrated Assignments: assisting instructors with group methods.....identifying suitable resource materials.....teaching remedial classes.....etc.

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14. THE ACADEMIC REGULATORY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to establish and maintain academic policies, procedures, and regulations that foster attainment of institutional objectives and commitments. Illustrated Assignments: expediting probationary policies.....evaluating graduation eligibility.....handling cases of student cheating.....etc.

---

15. THE SOCIAL REGULATORY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to establish and maintain policies, procedures, and regulations for control of social behavior of individual students and student groups. Illustrated Assignments: developing standards for personal conduct.....handling cases of social misconduct....interpreting regulations to students and faculty.....etc.

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16. THE STUDENT SELF-GOVERNING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to provide opportunities and encouragement for students to participate in self-governing activities that provide experiences in decision making through democratic processes. Illustrated Assignments: advising student governing organizations, conducting leadership training programs, supervising elections.....etc.

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17. THE CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college associated with development of cultural, educational, and vocational opportunities which supplement classroom experiences of students. Illustrated Assignments: arranging for cultural activities (musical, forensic, dramatic, etc.).....assisting student publications staff.....assisting vocational interest groups.....etc.

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18. THE CITIZENSHIP ACTIVITY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to encourage student involvement in service and political activities of the community. Illustrated Assignments: arranging participation with civic leaders,.....interpreting opportunities to students.....conducting evaluations of student experiences.....etc.

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19. THE RECREATIONAL ACTIVITY FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to develop in cooperation with students those social, recreational, and leisure time activities which are appropriate to a college setting. Illustrated Assignments: developing intramural activities.....programming for student center.....stimulating interest groups.....etc.

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20. THE INTER-COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to develop and manage a program of inter-collegiate athletics. Illustrated Assignments: arranging athletic schedules.....supervising athletic facilities and equipment.....determining scope of the program.....etc.

21. THE HEALTH APPRAISAL FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to produce a systematic and periodic health and physical appraisal of students. Illustrated Assignments: designing health appraisal forms.....reviewing health appraisals to identify special problems.....etc.

22. THE HEALTH EDUCATIVE FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed (1) to acquaint students and staff with appropriate health and safety practices, (2) to provide adequate procedures for handling emergencies, and (3) to provide or identify suitable medical resources which can be used to treat physical and emotional problems. Illustrated Assignments: distributing health and safety materials.....teaching first aid procedures.....etc.

23. THE HEALTH CLINICAL FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to provide clinical assistance and treatment on campus for students experiencing physical ailments and/or emotional difficulties. Illustrated Assignments: maintaining an infirmary.....dispensing medication under supervision of a physician.....conducting psychotherapy.....etc.

24. THE FINANCIAL ASSISTING FUNCTION. Those activities designed to provide or identify various sources of financial assistance (loans, grant-in-aids, part-time employment opportunities) for students whose progress or continuation in college may be impaired by the lack of finances. Illustrated Assignments: reviewing loan requests.....seeking new subscribers.....locating part-time jobs.....etc.

25. THE SCHOLARSHIP AWARDING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to obtain money for scholarships and to select student recipients on the basis of outstanding achievement rather than financial need. Illustrated Assignments: reviewing scholarship applications.....seeking new scholarships.....analyzing progress of recipients.....etc.

26. THE CAMPUS HOUSING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to provide suitable housing accommodations on campus. Illustrated Assignments: planning activities with residents.....assigning rooms to residents.....advising residents with special problems.....etc.

27. THE OFF-CAMPUS HOUSING FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed to locate, approve, and supervise the housing of off-campus students who are living away from home. Illustrated Assignments: surveying community for suitable housing.....approving living arrangements.....resolving student-landlord conflicts.....etc.

28. THE COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed (1) to identify part-time work experiences specifically related to educational goals of students, and (2) to place students who are currently enrolled in occupational curricula in positions of employment that are mutually productive for the student, the employer, and the college. Illustrated Assignments: identifying possible sources of cooperative placement.....working with instructors in achieving placement.....assisting employers in evaluating students.....etc.

29. THE GRADUATE PLACEMENT FUNCTION. Those activities of the college designed (1) to locate appropriate employment opportunities for graduates of the junior college who may be suitably qualified, and (2) to provide prospective employers with placement information that may be helpful in reaching employment decisions. Illustrated Assignments: maintaining placement files.....consulting with prospective employers.....scheduling placement interviews.....etc.

30. THE NON-STUDENT COUNSELING FUNCTION. Those activities associated with providing college resources and staff members to assist out-of-school youth and adults (1) to identify educational and vocational objectives, and (2) to resolve problems and difficulties which may be restricting their achievement of these objectives. Illustrated Assignments: advertising the availability of services.....administering tests.....maintaining occupational information file.....etc.

31. **THE PROGRAM ARTICULATING FUNCTION.** Those activities of the college designed to foster cooperative efforts of staff members among various divisions or departments of the college (1) which will integrate the educational experience of the students, (2) which will foster development of supplementary educational opportunities for students, and (3) which will seek increased continuity between junior college and pre-college experiences and between junior college and post-junior college experiences. Illustrated Assignments: serving on faculty committees.....attending joint meetings with high school counselors.....visiting former students at senior colleges.....etc.

32. **THE ALUMNI SUPPORTIVE FUNCTION.** Those activities designed to gain the interest and support of former students by such means as (1) maintaining a roster of former students, (2) informing them of new developments within the college, (3) recognizing the accomplishments of former students, and (4) assisting them to keep in contact with former classmates. Illustrated Assignments: maintaining current addresses of alumni..... preparing alumni bulletin.....arrange for class reunions.....etc.

33. **THE STUDENT PERSONNEL EVALUATIVE FUNCTION.** Those activities of the college designed to collect, analyze and interpret data concerning (1) the characteristics of and transitions within the student population, (2) the needs of students, (3) the use of college resources by students, (4) those factors affecting the progress of students during and following their junior college experience, and (5) the adequacy of various college services designed for student development. Illustrated Assignments: conducting studies of student characteristics.....conducting follow-up studies.....developing experimental projects.....etc.

34. **THE IN-SERVICE EDUCATIONAL FUNCTION.** Those activities of the college organized and designed to increase the effectiveness of staff participation in the various non-instructional functions of college through a planned program of in-service training or education. Illustrated Assignments: attending counselor in-service training meetings.....distributing educational articles among staff....interpreting research data to college staff.. ...etc.

35. **THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTION.** Those activities of the college designed to provide adequate numbers of qualified professional and clerical staff members, suitable facilities and equipment, and an integrated plan of organization that will foster effective development and coordination of the student services program. Illustrated Assignments: interviewing prospective staff members.....preparing budget requests for particular service or program.....preparing job descriptions.....etc.

DEVELOPMENT FACTORS

Directions: A variety of factors have been identified which can have impact upon the development of programs. Please indicate your judgment of the relative impact of various factors by placing a check mark (✓) on the scale for each factor.

Factors	Not a Factor	Very Positive 5	Generally Positive 4	Equally Balanced 3	Generally Restrictive 2	Very Restrictive 1	
		Relative Impact upon Program Development					
Physical facilities	___						(E 41)
Equipment	___						(42)
Clerical assistance	___						(43)
Size of staff	___						(44)
Holding power for qualified staff	___						(45)
Clarity of institutional goals and policies	___						(46)
Faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies	___						(47)
Clarity of staff roles	___						(48)
Support from administration	___						(49)
Support from faculty	___						(50)
Response of students	___						(51)
In-service training	___						(52)
Workable ideas and concepts	___						(53)
Identification of supportive data to stimulate development	___						(54)
Professional competency of staff	___						(55)
Staff cohesiveness and cooperation	___						(56)

INVENTORY OF STAFF RESOURCES

This Inventory is intended for each staff member who devotes approximately one-half or more of his (or her) employment to functions listed in the Inventory you have just completed.

Our purpose in the INVENTORY OF STAFF RESOURCES is to obtain an understanding of the experience and training of participating staff members. Your complete response to these items is needed. With your cooperation, we expect to make significant recommendations that will increase and strengthen opportunities for professional training.

I. Professional Experience

(F4,5) Name ____________ (1-3) Institution ____________ Title ____________ Yrs. in Position ____________

(6) Next most recent position ____________ Institution ____________ Yrs. in Position ____________

Next most recent position ____________ Institution ____________ Yrs. in Position ____________

Are you a full-time college staff member? (7) ___ Yes ___ No. What percentage of your employment is given to activities associated with functions listed in the Inventory? (8) _____ Percent

Do you classify yourself as a professional student personnel worker? (9) ___ Yes ___ No ___ Not Sure

---

(10-53) Please indicate in the appropriate spaces the number of years of experience in various assignments. (Include your current position.)

	Elementary Secondary	Junior College	University
A. Primarily Teaching	(10,11) ________	(12,13) ________	(14,15) ________
B. Primarily Student Personnel Work	(16,17) ________	(18,19) ________	(20,21) ________
C. Primarily Administration (Non-Student Personnel)	(22,23) ________	(24,25) ________	(26,27) ________
Equally A & B	(28,29) ________	(30,31) ________	(32,33) ________
Equally A & C	(34,35) ________	(36,37) ________	(38,39) ________
Equally B & C	(40,41) ________	(42,43) ________	(44,45) ________
Equally A, B, & C	(46,47) ________	(48,49) ________	(50,51) ________

Total years of educational experience: (52,53) ________

II. Educational Experience

(54,55) ______________________ ______________________ ______________________ ______________________
Undergraduate Institution — Major — Degree — Graduation Date

Approximate number of undergraduate credits in:

(56,57) ______ Education (58,59) ______ Psychology (60,61) ______ Sociology & Anthropology

Graduate Education (Quarter hours equal two-thirds of semester hours)

REGULAR COURSE WORK:

(62-71) Institution ______________________ (72) Last year of attendance ______________

(73,74) ______ Semester hours (75) ______________ Major (76) ______________ Degree, if any

(G6-15) Institution ______________________ (16) Last year of attendance ______________

(17,18) ______ Semester hours (19) ______________ Major (20) ______________ Degree, if any

(21-30) Institution ______________________ (31) Last year of attendance ______________

(32,33) ______ Semester hours (34) ______________ Major (35) ______________ Degree, if any

SPECIAL WORKSHOPS OR INSTITUTES: (36) __________

Institution ______________________ Year ______ Number of weeks ________

Title of workshop ______________________________

Institution ______________________ Year ______ Number of weeks ________

Title of workshop ______________________________

Institution ______________________ Year ______ Number of weeks ________

Title of workshop ______________________________

SUPERVISED PRACTICUM

Did you have a supervised practicum? ___ Yes ___ No

Institution ______________________ Dates __________ to __________ (37,38) No. of Credits ____

(39) Setting: ___ Elementary ___ Secondary ___ Junior College ___ University ___ Medical Clinic ___ Other

(40) Please indicate emphasis of the practicum:

______ primarily supervised counseling
______ primarily other student personnel services
______ equally counseling and student personnel services

DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATE CREDITS

Please indicate the approximate distribution of graduate credits in the following types of courses. (The sum of the credits should equal your total graduate credits.)

Approximate Credits
(semester equivalent)

(41,42) _______a. Counseling interview courses
(43,44) _______b. Clinical Testing courses
(45,46) _______c. Educational testing courses
(47,48) _______d. Group guidance courses (includes group dynamics)
(49,50) _______e. Occupational information courses
(51,52) _______f. Supervised practicum courses
(53,54) _______g. Research methodology courses (include statistics, thesis, dissertation)
(55,56) _______ Other student personnel and guidance courses (excluding a through g)
(57,58) _______ Junior college education courses
(59,60) _______ Higher education courses
(61,62) _______ Other education courses
(63,64) _______ Cognate courses (psychology, sociology, anthropology)

EVALUATION OF GRADUATE EXPERIENCES

In relationship to your current job assignment---
What were the most significant graduate experiences or courses?

______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

What were the least helpful graduate experiences or courses?

______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

(65) Have you had any on-the-job training or supervision (non-credit) in any junior college in which you have been employed? ____ Yes ____ No

If yes, please describe where, when, and the nature of the training or supervision:

____
____
____

(66,67) Please list the professional associations of which you are a member:

______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

How many professional conferences have you attended during the last three years?

(68) ________ State (69) ________ Regional (70) ________ National

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION. PLEASE STAPLE THE BOOKLET
CLOSED AND GIVE IT TO YOUR INSTITUTIONAL REPRESENTATIVE.

INVENTORY EVALUATION

Having completed the Inventory of Selected College Functions, how would you judge the adequacy of the Inventory in allowing you to depict the range of functions in your program?

(E57)
___ Very satisfactory
___ Satisfactory
___ Equally balanced
___ Unsatisfactory
___ Very unsatisfactory

Comment, if any: ______________________________
____
____
____
____

How would you describe the adequacy of the descriptions of the various functions?

(E58)
___ Very satisfactory
___ Satisfactory
___ Equally balanced
___ Unsatisfactory
___ Very unsatisfactory

Comment, if any: ______________________________
____
____
____
____

If you were to complete this Inventory a second time after a lapse of several weeks, how consistent do you feel your responses would tend to be with the responses you have just provided?

(E59)
___ Highly consistent
___ Generally Consistent
___ Fairly consistent
___ Somewhat inconsistent
___ Very inconsistent

Comment, if any: ______________________________
____
____
____
____

APPENDIX E

Summary of Self-Judged Implementation and Administrative Classifications of Basic Student Personnel Functions

BASIC STUDENT PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS SELECTED BY EXPERTS	Self-Judged Implementations		Self-Judged as Student Personnel Classification	
	Colleges		Colleges	
	74 Smaller	49 Larger	74 Smaller	49 Larger
ORIENTATION FUNCTIONS				
Pre-College Information	97	100	56	86
Student Inductive	97	96	80	90
Group Orienting	89	98	75	85
Career Information	70	96	77	85
APPRAISAL FUNCTIONS				
Personnel Records	89	96	63	85
Educational Testing	94	100	84	94
Applicant Appraisal	99	96	55	72
CONSULTATIVE FUNCTIONS				
Student Counseling	93	98	70	88
Student Advisory	97	100	72	92
Applicant Consulting	94	100	91	100
PARTICIPATION FUNCTIONS				
Co-Curricular Activities	100	80	74	82
Student Self-Governing	94	100	53	77
REGULATORY FUNCTIONS				
Student Registration	97	100	36	63
Academic Regulatory	97	100	31	71
Social Regulatory	96	100	61	86
SERVICE FUNCTIONS				
Financial Assisting	87	100	69	73
Graduate Placement	58	86	60	88
ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONS				
Program Articulation	91	98	56	83
In-Service Education	79	98	45	72
Program Evaluation	79	90	78	84
Administrative Organization	90	100	13	53

APPENDIX F

SCALE FOR INTERVIEWER APPRAISALS

The implementation was rated as follows:

SCOPE	A - Very Broad	4
	B - Broad	3
	C - In-Between	2
	D - Limited	1
	E - Very Limited	0

QUALITY	A - Very Good	4
	B - Good	3
	C - In-Between	2
	D - Poor	1
	E - Very Poor	0

Combined scores of scope and quality were used to reduce 5-point scale to 3-point scale

	Combined Score
satisfactory	5,6,7,8
in-between	4
unsatisfactory	3,2,1,0

Basic functions that were not implemented were scored as unsatisfactory

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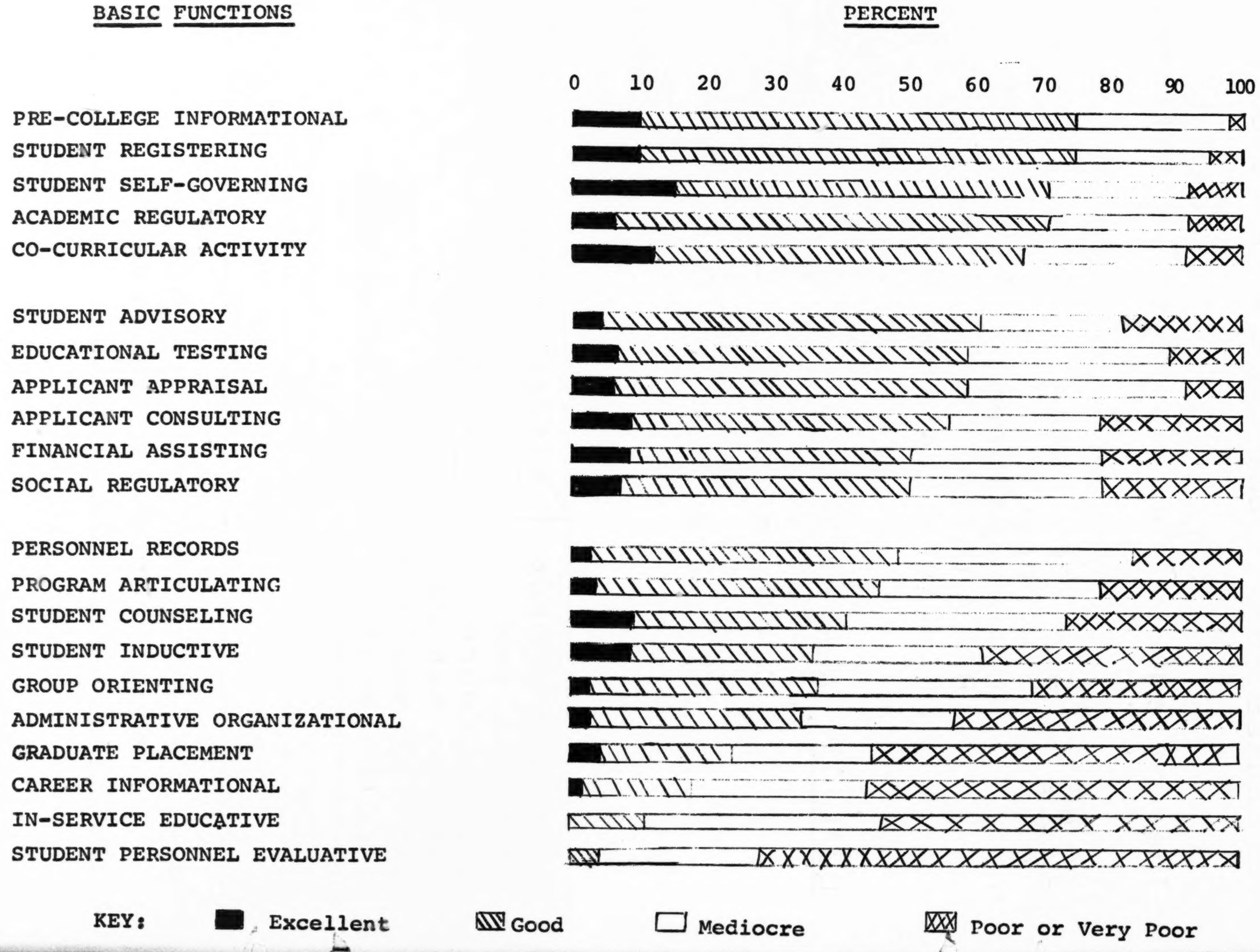
APPENDIX G

Graphic Summary of Appraised Adequacy of Basic Functions by Visiting Interviewers



APPENDIX H

Relationships Between Administrative Classification and Appraised Adequacy of Implementation

Classification. If the institutional representative said the function was classified under "Student Personnel" or "Student Personnel and General Administration", it was listed as "SP, Adm".

If the representative said it was classified under "Student Personnel" and some other department ("Academic Instruction", "Business Management", "Public Relations", "Community Service", or "Other") it was listed as "SP, Other".

If the representative said it was classified under some department other than "Student Personnel" (if Student Personnel was not even partially responsible for it) then it was listed as "Non SP".

Effectiveness

Scope	Quality	Scope + Quality
5 = Very broad	5 = Very good	7 to 10 = Satisfactory
4 = Broad	4 = Good	6 = Mediocre
3 = In between	3 = In between	5 or less = Unsatisfactory
2 = Limited	2 = Poor	
1 = Very limited	1 = Very poor	

Functions

1 = Pre-College Information
2 = Occupational Information
3 = Student Inductive
4 = Group Orienting
5 = Educational Testing
6 = Applicant Appraisal
7 = Personnel Records
8 = Applicant Consulting
9 = Student Advisory
10 = Student Counseling
11 = Student Self-Governing
12 = Co-curricular Activity
13 = Student Registration
14 = Social Regulatory
15 = Academic Regulatory
16 = Financial Assisting
17 = Graduate Placement
18 = Program Articulating
19 = Student Personnel Evaluative
20 = In-Service Educational
21 = Administrative Organizational

Basic Data

Function		SP Adm	SP Other	Non SP	x^2
1	Unsat	1	0	0	2.851
	Med	7	2	2	
	Sat	17	15	5	
2	Unsat	15	6	2	5.687
	Med	9	4	0	
	Sat	7	0	2	
3	Unsat	13	2	1	3.628
	Med	8	1	2	
	Sat	14	0	4	
4	Unsat	7	8	5	3.912
	Med	5	5	1	
	Sat	10	6	1	
5	Unsat	3	1	1	3.818
	Med	13	2	0	
	Sat	25	2	2	
6	Unsat	2	1	1	2.716
	Med	9	1	6	
	Sat	19	2	6	
7	Unsat	5	0	2	2.743
	Med	12	3	2	
	Sat	18	2	3	
8	Unsat	7	2	2	0.641
	Med	8	2	1	
	Sat	20	4	3	
9	Unsat	4	1	3	11.787 $P < 01$
	Med	5	5	0	
	Sat	16	13	1	
10	Unsat	11	1	0	---
	Med	11	3	0	
	Sat	20	1	0	

Function		SP Adm	SP Other	Non SP	x^2
	Unsat	2	1	1	
11	Med	6	0	4	9.476
	Sat	30	1	4	P< 01
	Unsat	1	3	0	
12	Med	4	4	3	3.291
	Sat	14	10	8	
	Unsat	2	0	1	
13	Med	4	1	6	2.417
	Sat	21	3	11	
	Unsat	2	0	2	
14	Med	17	1	1	6.347
	Sat	20	2	3	P< 05
	Unsat	1	2	1	
15	Med	3	1	6	7.062
	Sat	14	14	7	P< 05
	Unsat	7	0	2	
16	Med	9	3	2	4.282
	Sat	21	2	2	
	Unsat	11	4	5	
17	Med	3	2	2	3.827
	Sat	9	0	3	
	Unsat	2	6	2	
18	Med	5	6	3	3.821
	Sat	12	7	3	
	Unsat	22	4	6	
19	Med	7	2	1	2.603
	Sat	1	1	0	
	Unsat	14	2	9	
20	Med	12	0	4	5.296
	Sat	15	1	0	
	Unsat	6	0	8	
21	Med	4	1	9	8.642
	Sat	8	6	6	P< 05

APPENDIX I

Relationships Between Developmental Variables and Appraised Adequacy of Implementation

Letter	Developmental Variable (DV)
A	Physical facilities
B	Equipment
C	Clerical assistance
D	Size of staff
E	Holding power for qualified staff
F	Clarity of institutional goals and policies
G	Faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies
H	Clarity of staff roles
I	Support from administration
J	Support from faculty
K	Response of students
L	In-service training
M	Workable ideas and concepts
N	Identification of supporting data to stimulate development
O	Professional competency of staff
P	Staff cohesiveness and cooperation

Ratings	
1 = Very restrictive	Unfavorable
2 = Generally restrictive	
3 = Equally balanced	
4 = Generally positive	Favorable
5 = Very positive	

Number	Function
1	Pre-College Information
2	Occupational Information
3	Student Inductive
4	Group Orienting
5	Educational Testing
6	Applicant Appraisal
7	Personnel Records
8	Applicant Consulting
9	Student Advisory
10	Student Counseling
11	Student Self-Governing
12	Co-curricular Activity
13	Student Registration
14	Social Regulatory
15.	Academic Regulatory
16	Financial Assisting
17	Graduate Placement
18	Program Articulating
19	Student Personnel Evaluative
20	In-Service Educational
21	Administrative Organizational

	Effectiveness
Scope	Quality
5 = Very broad	5 = Very good
4 = Broad	4 = Good
3 = Inbetween	3 = Inbetween
3 = Limited	2 = Poor
1 = Very limited	1 = Very poor

Scope + Quality

7 to 10 = Satisfactory
6 = Mediocre
5 or less = Unsatisfactory

Tables of Intercorrelations* Among Developmental Variables
N = 45 Large Institutions for Whom Ratings Were Complete

	B.	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
A	78	18	40	30	37	08	26	41	00	22	33	23	39	21	16
B		43	46	26	39	21	34	29	07	23	36	41	44	21	09
C			64	18	26	27	27	18	14	20	46	44	22	13	00
D				27	23	30	24	32	-03	20	42	47	20	26	-03
E					26	30	03	38	31	25	39	08	13	32	29
F						69	55	57	35	41	36	15	23	-06	27
G							35	44	48	48	30	17	24	-07	21
H								49	26	33	50	15	33	12	36
I									54	55	44	21	30	34	50
J										60	32	16	22	16	51
K											40	29	36	09	23
L												36	29	13	49
M													25	30	07
N														24	12
O															30

* Decimals omitted

A = Physical facilities
B = Equipment
C = Clerical assistance
D = Size of staff
E = Holding power for qualified staff
F = Clarity of institutional goals and policies
G = Faculty concurrence with institutional goals and policies
H = Clarity of staff roles
I = Support from administration
J = Support from faculty
K = Response of students
L = In-service training
M = Workable ideas and concepts
N = Identification of supporting data to stimulate development
O = Professional competency of staff
P = Staff cohesiveness and cooperation

DVE 1 (A through P)

Function 1

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	0	8	18		Unfav	1	5	8	
Fav	1	3	19	3.128	Fav	0	6	29	4.912
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	0	9	18		Unfav	1	7	20	
Fav	1	2	19	5.024	Fav	0	4	17	1.084
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	1	9	24		Unfav	1	5	16	
Fav	0	2	13	1.598	Fav	0	6	21	1.270
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	0	9	22		Unfav	1	11	35	
Fav	1	2	15	3.582	Fav	0	0	2	0.676
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	1	5	13		Unfav	1	4	20	
Fav	0	6	23	1.866	Fav	0	7	14	2.548
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	1	8	12	6.269	Unfav	1	11	28	
Fav	0	3	23	P .05	Fav	0	0	9	3.576
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	1	7	16		Unfav	0	5	11	
Fav	0	4	19	2.055	Fav	1	6	26	1.448
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	0	9	21		Unfav	0	5	12	
Fav	1	2	15	3.685	Fav	1	6	25	1.177

DVE 2 (A through P)

Function 2

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	15	6	4	
Fav	11	7	5	0.721
DVB				
Unfav	17	6	4	
Fav	9	7	5	1.930
DVC				
Unfav	20	7	6	
Fav	6	6	3	2.171
DVD				
Unfav	20	6	4	
Fav	6	7	5	5.042
DVE				
Unfav	10	5	3	
Fav	15	8	6	0.125
DVF				
Unfav	13	6	2	
Fav	12	7	7	2.390
DVG				
Unfav	16	5	3	
Fav	9	8	6	3.633
DVH				
Unfav	20	7	3	
Fav	6	6	6	5.990

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	11	1	2	
Fav	15	12	7	5.285
DVJ				
Unfav	16	6	6	
Fav	10	7	3	1.160
DVK				
Unfav	13	5	4	
Fav	13	8	5	0.473
DVL				
Unfav	26	12	8	
Fav	0	1	1	2.622
DVM				
Unfav	15	5	5	
Fav	11	6	4	0.473
DVN				
Unfav	22	9	8	
Fav	4	4	1	1.771
DVO				
Unfav	10	2	4	
Fav	16	11	5	2.692
DVP				
Unfav	11	3	3	
Fav	15	10	6	1.422

DVE 3 (A through P)

Function 3

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	11	6	7	
Fav	6	6	11	2.339
DVB				
Unfav	11	6	9	
Fav	6	6	9	0.949
DVC				
Unfav	13	7	12	
Fav	4	5	6	1.092
DVD				
Unfav	14	6	9	
Fav	3	6	9	4.806
DVE				
Unfav	9	3	5	
Fav	7	9	13	3.943
DVF				
Unfav	9	5	7	
Fav	7	7	11	1.133
DVG				
Unfav	6	7	10	
Fav	10	5	8	1.556
DVH				
Unfav	14	8	8	
Fav	3	4	10	5.498

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	5	4	5	
Fav	12	8	13	0.108
DVJ				
Unfav	9	8	11	
Fav	8	4	7	0.579
DVK				
Unfav	9	6	6	
Fav	8	6	12	1.544
DVL				
Unfav	16	12	17	
Fav	1	0	1	0.718
DVM				
Unfav	8	6	10	
Fav	7	6	8	0.089
DVN				
Unfav	16	9	13	
Fav	1	3	5	3.064
DVO				
Unfav	6	5	4	
Fav	11	7	14	1.393
DVP				
Unfav	6	4	6	
Fav	11	8	12	0.019

DVE 4 (A through P)

Function 4

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	11	7	8		Unfav	7	3	4	
Fav	10	4	9	0.744	Fav	14	8	13	0.454
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	13	6	8		Unfav	12	6	10	
Fav	8	5	9	0.839	Fav	9	5	7	0.050
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	14	8	12		Unfav	10	4	8	
Fav	7	3	5	0.142	Fav	11	7	9	0.419
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	15	7	9		Unfav	21	10	16	
Fav	6	4	8	1.382	Fav	0	1	1	1.739
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	7	4	8		Unfav	10	5	10	
Fav	13	7	9	0.621	Fav	11	4	6	0.817
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	7	4	10		Unfav	19	10	11	
Fav	13	7	6	3.122	Fav	2	1	6	4.975
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	9	5	10		Unfav	8	6	2	6.053
Fav	11	6	6	1.270	Fav	13	5	15	$P<05$
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	15	8	7		Unfav	8	4	5	
Fav	6	3	9	3.605	Fav	13	7	12	0.330

DVE 5 (A through P)

Function 5

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	2	9	15	
Fav	3	6	14	0.653
DVB				
Unfav	2	11	14	
Fav	3	4	15	3.022
DVC				
Unfav	4	11	19	
Fav	1	4	10	0.580
DVD				
Unfav	4	10	17	
Fav	1	5	12	0.946
DVE				
Unfav	1	4	14	
Fav	4	11	14	3.119
DVF				
Unfav	0	7	14	
Fav	5	8	13	4.624
DVG				
Unfav	2	7	15	
Fav	3	8	12	0.579
DVH				
Unfav	3	12	15	
Fav	2	3	13	2.926

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	1	6	7	
Fav	4	9	22	1.419
DVJ				
Unfav	2	11	15	
Fav	3	4	14	2.553
DVK				
Unfav	1	9	12	
Fav	4	6	17	2.781
DVL				
Unfav	5	15	27	
Fav	0	0	2	1.438
DVM				
Unfav	3	9	13	
Fav	2	6	13	0.456
DVN				
Unfav	5	13	22	
Fav	0	2	7	2.023
DVO				
Unfav	3	5	8	
Fav	2	10	21	2.042
DVP				
Unfav	0	5	12	
Fav	5	10	17	3.241

DVE 6 (A through P)

Function 6

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	2	9	15	
Fav	2	7	14	0.101
DVB				
Unfav	2	10	15	
Fav	2	6	14	0.530
DVC				
Unfav	3	13	18	
Fav	1	3	11	1.851
DVD				
Unfav	4	11	16	
Fav	0	5	13	3.347
DVE				
Unfav	0	8	11	
Fav	4	7	18	3.840
DVF				
Unfav	0	9	12	
Fav	4	6	16	4.693
DVG				
Unfav	0	10	14	
Fav	4	5	14	5.648
DVH				
Unfav	2	14	14	6.400
Fav	2	2	14	$P < 05$

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	0	7	7	
Fav	4	9	22	3.686
DVJ				
Unfav	1	11	16	
Fav	3	5	13	2.614
DVK				
Unfav	0	9	13	
Fav	4	7	16	4.093
DVL				
Unfav	4	16	27	
Fav	0	0	2	1.438
DVM				
Unfav	2	11	12	
Fav	2	4	15	3.277
DVN				
Unfav	2	16	22	6.914
Fav	2	0	7	$P < 05$
DVO				
Unfav	1	8	7	
Fav	3	8	22	3.252
DVP				
Unfav	0	6	11	
Fav	4	10	18	2.315

DVE 7 (A through P)

Function 7

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	5	11	10	
Fav	3	7	13	1.603
DVB				
Unfav	5	11	11	
Fav	3	7	12	0.932
DVC				
Unfav	6	17	11	10.473
Fav	2	1	12	$P < 01$
DVD				
Unfav	6	15	10	7.468
Fav	2	3	13	$P < 05$
DVE				
Unfav	3	10	6	
Fav	5	8	16	3.329
DVF				
Unfav	5	7	9	
Fav	2	11	13	2.397
DVG				
Unfav	4	10	10	
Fav	3	8	12	0.526
DVH				
Unfav	7	11	12	
Fav	0	7	11	5.261

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	1	9	4	6.471
Fav	7	9	19	$P < 05$
DVJ				
Unfav	5	11	12	
Fav	3	7	11	0.441
DVK				
Unfav	3	10	0	
Fav	5	8	14	1.313
DVL				
Unfav	8	17	22	
Fav	0	1	1	0.444
DVM				
Unfav	4	9	12	
Fav	3	7	11	0.089
DVN				
Unfav	8	18	14	12.463
Fav	0	0	9	$P < 01$
DVO				
Unfav	1	8	7	
Fav	7	10	16	2.667
DVP				
Unfav	3	6	8	
Fav	5	12	15	0.043

DVE 8 (A through P)

Function 8

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	8	6	12	
Fav	3	5	15	2.523
DVB				
Unfav	10	6	11	7.953
Fav	1	5	16	P<05
DVC				
Unfav	10	8	16	
Fav	1	3	11	3.760
DVD				
Unfav	11	9	11	13.911
Fav	0	2	16	P<01
DVE				
Unfav	4	6	9	
Fav	7	5	17	1.346
DVF				
Unfav	7	5	9	
Fav	4	6	16	2.364
DVG				
Unfav	9	5	10	
Fav	2	6	15	5.527
DVH				
Unfav	9	10	11	10.062
Fav	2	1	15	P<01

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	4	6	4	
Fav	7	5	23	6.467
DVJ				
Unfav	7	6	15	
Fav	4	5	12	0.247
DVK				
Unfav	7	5	10	
Fav	4	6	17	2.237
DVL				
Unfav	11	10	26	
Fav	0	1	1	1.183
DVM				
Unfav	8	4	13	
Fav	3	6	12	2.383
DVN				
Unfav	10	10	20	
Fav	1	1	7	2.291
DVO				
Unfav	4	6	6	
Fav	7	5	21	3.802
DVP				
Unfav	5	3	9	
Fav	6	8	18	0.852

DVE 9 (A through P)

Function 9

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	6	4	15	
Fav	2	6	15	2.321
DVB				
Unfav	5	5	16	
Fav	3	5	14	0.302
DVC				
Unfav	4	7	22	
Fav	4	3	8	1.610
DVD				
Unfav	6	7	17	
Fav	2	3	13	1.209
DVE				
Unfav	4	4	10	
Fav	4	6	19	0.654
DVF				
Unfav	3	5	12	
Fav	4	5	17	0.226
DVG				
Unfav	2	8	13	
Fav	5	2	16	5.196
DVH				
Unfav	6	8	15	
Fav	1	2	15	4.683

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	2	3	8	
Fav	6	7	22	0.063
DVJ				
Unfav	3	7	17	
Fav	5	3	13	1.913
DVK				
Unfav	1	7	13	
Fav	7	3	17	5.977
DVL				
Unfav	8	10	28	
Fav	0	0	2	1.252
DVM				
Unfav	4	6	15	
Fav	3	3	14	0.630
DVN				
Unfav	8	10	21	6.646
Fav	0	0	9	$P<05$
DVO				
Unfav	3	7	6	8.512
Fav	5	3	24	$P<05$
DVP				
Unfav	3	3	10	
Fav	5	7	20	0.112

DVE 10 (A through P)

Function 10

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	7	9	10	
Fav	5	6	11	0.652
DVB				
Unfav	8	9	9	
Fav	4	6	12	2.043
DVC				
Unfav	10	10	13	
Fav	2	5	8	1.676
DVD				
Unfav	10	10	10	
Fav	2	5	11	4.317
DVE				
Unfav	6	5	7	
Fav	6	9	14	0.954
DVF				
Unfav	5	7	9	
Fav	7	6	12	0.495
DVG				
Unfav	6	10	7	6.103
Fav	6	3	14	$P < 05$
DVH				
Unfav	9	11	10	
Fav	3	3	11	4.357

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	5	6	3	
Fav	7	9	18	4.011
DVJ				
Unfav	5	12	10	
Fav	7	3	11	5.111
DVK				
Unfav	4	11	16	7.829
Fav	8	4	15	$P < 05$
DVL				
Unfav	12	15	19	
Fav	0	0	2	2.683
DVM				
Unfav	7	10	8	
Fav	5	4	11	2.858
DVN				
Unfav	10	15	14	
Fav	2	0	7	6.427
DVO				
Unfav	5	6	5	
Fav	7	9	16	1.532
DVP				
Unfav	5	6	6	
Fav	7	9	15	0.773

DVE 11 (A through P)

Function 11

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	3	9	14	8.649	Unfav	1	4	9	
Fav	1	1	21	P< 05	Fav	3	6	26	0.805
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	4	8	15	7.886	Unfav	3	5	20	
Fav	0	2	20	P< 05	Fav	1	5	15	0.729
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	4	7	23		Unfav	3	5	14	
Fav	0	3	12	1.989	Fav	1	5	21	1.910
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	4	7	20		Unfav	4	10	33	
Fav	0	3	15	3.082	Fav	0	0	2	0.834
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	0	4	15		Unfav	3	6	16	
Fav	4	5	20	2.866	Fav	1	3	17	1.695
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	3	4	14		Unfav	4	10	26	
Fav	1	4	21	1.889	Fav	0	0	9	4.410
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	3	3	18		Unfav	1	4	11	
Fav	1	5	17	1.508	Fav	3	6	24	0.376
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	4	7	19		Unfav	1	4	12	
Fav	0	2	16	4.304	Fav	3	6	23	0.293

DVE 12 (A through P)

Function 12

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	2	9	15		Unfav	3	3	8	
Fav	2	3	18	3.101	Fav	1	9	25	4.603
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	2	9	16		Unfav	4	8	16	
Fav	2	3	17	2.547	Fav	0	4	17	4.455
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	3	7	24		Unfav	3	5	14	
Fav	1	5	9	0.923	Fav	1	7	19	1.597
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	2	8	21		Unfav	4	12	31	
Fav	2	4	12	0.365	Fav	0	0	2	1.011
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	2	7	10		Unfav	2	4	19	
Fav	1	5	23	3.873	Fav	2	7	12	2.067
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	2	7	12		Unfav	4	10	26	
Fav	1	4	21	3.109	Fav	0	2	7	1.101
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	2	9	13	6.254	Unfav	2	4	10	
Fav	1	2	20	$P < 05$	Fav	2	8	23	0.633
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	4	5	21		Unfav	4	5	8	9.378
Fav	0	6	12	3.782	Fav	0	7	25	$P < 01$

DVE 13 (A through P)

Function 13

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	2	6	18		Unfav	2	4	8	
Fav	1	5	17	0.270	Fav	1	7	27	3.021
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	2	7	18		Unfav	3	8	17	
Fav	1	4	17	0.677	Fav	0	3	18	4.391
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	3	9	22		Unfav	1	9	12	7.816
Fav	0	2	13	2.826	Fav	2	2	23	P< 05
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	3	7	21		Unfav	3	11	33	
Fav	0	4	14	1.903	Fav	0	0	2	0.834
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	2	6	11		Unfav	2	7	16	
Fav	1	5	23	2.693	Fav	1	4	16	0.810
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	2	4	15		Unfav	3	11	26	
Unfav	1	7	18	0.903	Fav	0	0	9	4.410
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	2	6	16		Unfav	2	5	9	
Fav	1	5	17	0.433	Fav	1	6	26	3.164
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	2	6	22		Unfav	2	4	11	
Fav	1	5	12	0.390	Fav	1	7	24	1.532

DVE 14 (A through P)

Function 14

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	4	14	7	13.042	Unfav	2	7	5	
Fav	0	5	18	$P < 01$	Fav	2	12	20	2.399
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	4	14	8	11.248	Unfav	2	10	15	
Fav	0	5	17	$P < 01$	Fav	2	9	10	0.307
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	4	15	14		Unfav	2	10	9	
Fav	0	4	11	4.629	Fav	2	9	16	1.283
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	4	14	12		Unfav	4	19	23	
Fav	0	5	13	5.657	Fav	0	0	2	1.920
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	1	10	8		Unfav	2	13	9	6.092
Fav	3	8	17	2.843	Fav	2	4	15	$P < 05$
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	3	8	9		Unfav	4	18	17	6.073
Fav	1	9	16	2.275	Fav	0	1	8	$P < 05$
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	4	8	12		Unfav	1	10	5	
Fav	0	9	13	4.019	Fav	3	9	20	5.309
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	4	14	11	7.767	Unfav	2	7	8	
Fav	0	4	14	$P < 05$	Fav	2	12	17	0.516

DVE 15 (A through P)

Function 15

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	3	5	18	
Fav	1	5	17	0.848
DVB				
Unfav	3	6	18	
Fav	1	4	17	0.928
DVC				
Unfav	3	7	24	
Fav	1	3	11	0.072
DVD				
Unfav	3	7	21	
Fav	1	3	14	0.593
DVE				
Unfav	2	3	14	
Fav	1	7	21	1.307
DVF				
Unfav	2	4	15	
Fav	1	6	19	0.680
DVG				
Unfav	3	5	16	
Fav	0	5	18	3.098
DVH				
Unfav	4	6	20	
Fav	0	4	14	2.623

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	3	3	8	
Fav	1	7	27	4.795
DVJ				
Unfav	3	5	20	
Fav	1	5	15	0.729
DVK				
Unfav	2	5	15	
Fav	2	5	20	0.206
DVL				
Unfav	4	10	33	
Fav	0	0	2	0.834
DVM				
Unfav	3	5	17	
Fav	1	5	15	0.783
DVN				
Unfav	4	8	28	
Fav	0	2	7	0.980
DVO				
Unfav	2	2	12	
Fav	2	8	23	1.318
DVP				
Unfav	3	5	9	
Fav	1	5	26	5.148

DVE 16 (A through P)

Function 16

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	6	7	13		Unfav	5	5	4	
Fav	3	7	12	0.712	Fav	4	9	21	5.422
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	7	6	13		Unfav	6	9	12	
Fav	2	8	12	2.790	Fav	3	5	13	1.456
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	8	9	16		Unfav	5	7	9	
Fav	1	5	9	2.091	Fav	4	7	16	1.342
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	8	8	14		Unfav	9	14	23	
Fav	1	6	11	3.296	Fav	0	0	2	1.920
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	4	7	7		Unfav	6	7	12	
Fav	5	6	18	2.596	Fav	3	6	11	0.572
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	6	7	8		Unfav	9	13	17	6.196
Fav	3	5	17	4.258	Fav	0	1	8	$P < 05$
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	8	6	9	7.404	Unfav	3	5	8	
Fav	1	6	16	$P < 05$	Fav	6	9	17	0.056
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	8	11	11	9.139	Unfav	2	4	11	
Fav	1	2	14	$P < 05$	Fav	7	10	14	1.777

DVE 17 (A through P)

Function 17

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	14	5	5	
Fav	11	5	7	0.672
DVB				
Unfav	13	7	5	
Fav	12	3	7	1.789
DVC				
Unfav	19	5	8	
Fav	6	5	4	2.237
DVD				
Unfav	18	4	7	
Fav	7	6	5	3.173
DVE				
Unfav	11	2	5	
Fav	13	8	7	2.022
DVF				
Unfav	12	5	3	
Fav	11	5	9	2.519
DVG				
Unfav	12	6	5	
Fav	11	4	7	0.755
DVH				
Unfav	18	4	6	
Fav	6	6	6	4.436

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	10	1	3	
Fav	15	9	9	3.250
DVJ				
Unfav	14	7	7	
Fav	11	3	5	0.592
DVK				
Unfav	12	4	5	
Fav	13	6	7	0.244
DVL				
Unfav	24	10	11	
Fav	1	0	1	0.938
DVM				
Unfav	12	5	6	
Fav	10	5	6	0.091
DVN				
Unfav	22	7	9	
Fav	3	3	3	1.851
DVO				
Unfav	8	1	7	5.774
Fav	17	9	5	$P < 05$
DVP				
Unfav	7	4	6	
Fav	18	6	6	1.780

DVE 18 (A through P)

Function 18

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	6	9	10	
Fav	5	6	12	0.791
DVB				
Unfav	6	10	11	
Fav	5	5	11	1.024
DVC				
Unfav	8	11	14	
Fav	3	4	8	0.495
DVD				
Unfav	8	10	12	
Fav	3	5	10	1.196
DVE				
Unfav	6	8	4	7.100
Fav	5	6	18	P< 05
DVF				
Unfav	6	6	9	
Fav	5	7	13	0.551
DVG				
Unfav	9	9	6	10.857
Fav	2	4	16	P< 01
DVH				
Unfav	7	11	12	
Fav	4	3	10	2.139

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	6	6	2	8.573
Fav	5	9	20	P< 05
DVJ				
Unfav	9	10	9	
Fav	2	5	13	5.673
DVK				
Unfav	6	9	7	
Fav	5	6	15	3.290
DVL				
Unfav	11	15	21	
Fav	0	0	1	1.207
DVM				
Unfav	7	7	11	
Fav	3	7	11	1.262
DVN				
Unfav	10	14	15	
Fav	1	1	7	4.577
DVO				
Unfav	5	7	4	
Fav	6	8	18	4.200
DVP				
Unfav	4	7	6	
Fav	7	8	16	1.472

DVE 19 (A through P)

Function 19

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	18	7	1		Unfav	11	3	0	
Fav	17	5	1	0.179	Fav	24	9	2	1.015
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	20	6	1		Unfav	21	6	1	
Fav	15	6	1	0.206	Fav	14	6	1	0.408
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	24	10	0		Unfav	17	5	0	
Fav	11	2	2	5.643	Fav	18	7	2	1.871
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	25	6	0		Unfav	35	10	2	6.429
Fav	10	6	2	5.357	Fav	0	2	0	$P < 05$
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	14	5	0		Unfav	21	3	1	
Fav	20	7	2	1.368	Fav	12	8	1	4.413
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	17	4	0		Unfav	29	10	1	
Fav	16	8	2	2.864	Fav	6	2	1	1.392
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	18	6	0		Unfav	12	4	0	
Fav	15	6	2	2.252	Fav	23	8	2	1.015
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	25	5	0	7.320	Unfav	10	6	1	
Fav	9	7	2	$P < 05$	Fav	25	6	1	2.027

DVE 20 (A through P)

Function 20

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA				
Unfav	16	8	2	
Fav	10	9	4	1.934
DVB				
Unfav	18	7	2	
Fav	8	10	4	4.580
DVC				
Unfav	22	9	3	6.065
Fav	4	8	3	P< 05
DVD				
Unfav	20	8	3	
Fav	6	9	3	4.462
DVE				
Unfav	12	4	3	
Fav	13	13	3	2.845
DVF				
Unfav	13	7	1	
Fav	12	9	5	2.453
DVG				
Unfav	16	6	2	
Fav	9	10	4	3.607
DVH				
Unfav	20	10	0	12.308
Fav	6	6	6	P< 01

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVI				
Unfav	11	3	0	
Fav	15	14	6	5.798
DVJ				
Unfav	17	9	2	
Fav	9	8	4	2.233
DVK				
Unfav	14	7	1	
Fav	12	10	5	2.870
DVL				
Unfav	26	17	4	14.943
Fav	0	0	2	P< 01
DVM				
Unfav	16	9	0	P< 05
Fav	9	7	5	6.914
DVN				
Unfav	23	13	1	
Fav	3	4	2	2.007
DVO				
Unfav	11	4	1	
Fav	15	13	5	2.443
DVP				
Unfav	11	6	0	
Fav	15	11	6	3.855

DVE 21 (A through P)

Function 21

	Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2		Unsat	Med	Sat	x^2
DVA					**DVI**				
Unfav	10	6	9		Unfav	7	6	0	12.916
Fav	4	8	11	2.979	Fav	7	8	20	$P < 01$
DVB					**DVJ**				
Unfav	9	7	10		Unfav	9	11	7	6.872
Fav	5	7	10	0.815	Fav	5	3	13	$P < 05$
DVC					**DVK**				
Unfav	11	10	12		Unfav	7	8	6	
Fav	3	4	8	1.388	Fav	7	6	14	2.779
DVD					**DVL**				
Unfav	8	11	11		Unfav	14	14	18	
Fav	6	3	9	2.194	Fav	0	0	2	2.922
DVE					**DVM**				
Unfav	8	5	5		Unfav	7	10	7	
Fav	5	9	15	4.508	Fav	6	3	12	4.984
DVF					**DVN**				
Unfav	7	7	6		Unfav	14	11	14	
Fav	5	7	14	2.798	Fav	0	3	6	4.958
DVG					**DVO**				
Unfav	8	8	7		Unfav	5	8	2	8.702
Fav	4	6	13	3.419	Fav	9	6	18	$P < 05$
DVH					**DVP**				
Unfav	10	11	8	6.947	Unfav	7	6	3	
Fav	3	3	12	$P < 05$	Fav	7	8	17	5.346

APPENDIX J

Relationships Between Levels of Graduate Training and Appraised Adequacy of Implementation

Functions

1 = Pre-College Information
2 = Occupational Information
3 = Student Inductive
4 = Group Orienting
5 = Educational Testing
6 = Applicant Appraisal
7 = Personnel Records
8 = Applicant Consulting
9 = Student Advisory
10 = Student Counseling
11 = Student Self-Governing
12 = Co-curricular Activity
13 = Student Registration
14 = Social Regulatory
15 = Academic Regulatory
16 = Financial Assisting
17 = Graduate Placement
18 = Program Articulating
19 = Student Personnel Evaluative
20 = In-Service Educational
21 = Administrative Organizational

	Effectiveness	
Scope	Quality	Scope + Quality
5 = Very Broad	5 = Very good	7 to 10 = Satisfactory
4 = Broad	4 = Good	
3 = In between	3 = In between	6 = Mediocre
2 = Limited	2 = Poor	5 or less = Unsatisfactory
1 = Very limited	1 = Very poor	

Classification

An individual was called a "supervisor" for a given function if he rated himself as being a "Director Supervisor". (He may have had other responsibilities also, including those of active participant.)

An individual was called an "Active Participant" if he classified himself in this, and no other, category.

He was called "trained" if he had taken at least 30 graduate hours in guidance-related courses; he was called "untrained" if he had fewer than 30 such graduate credits.

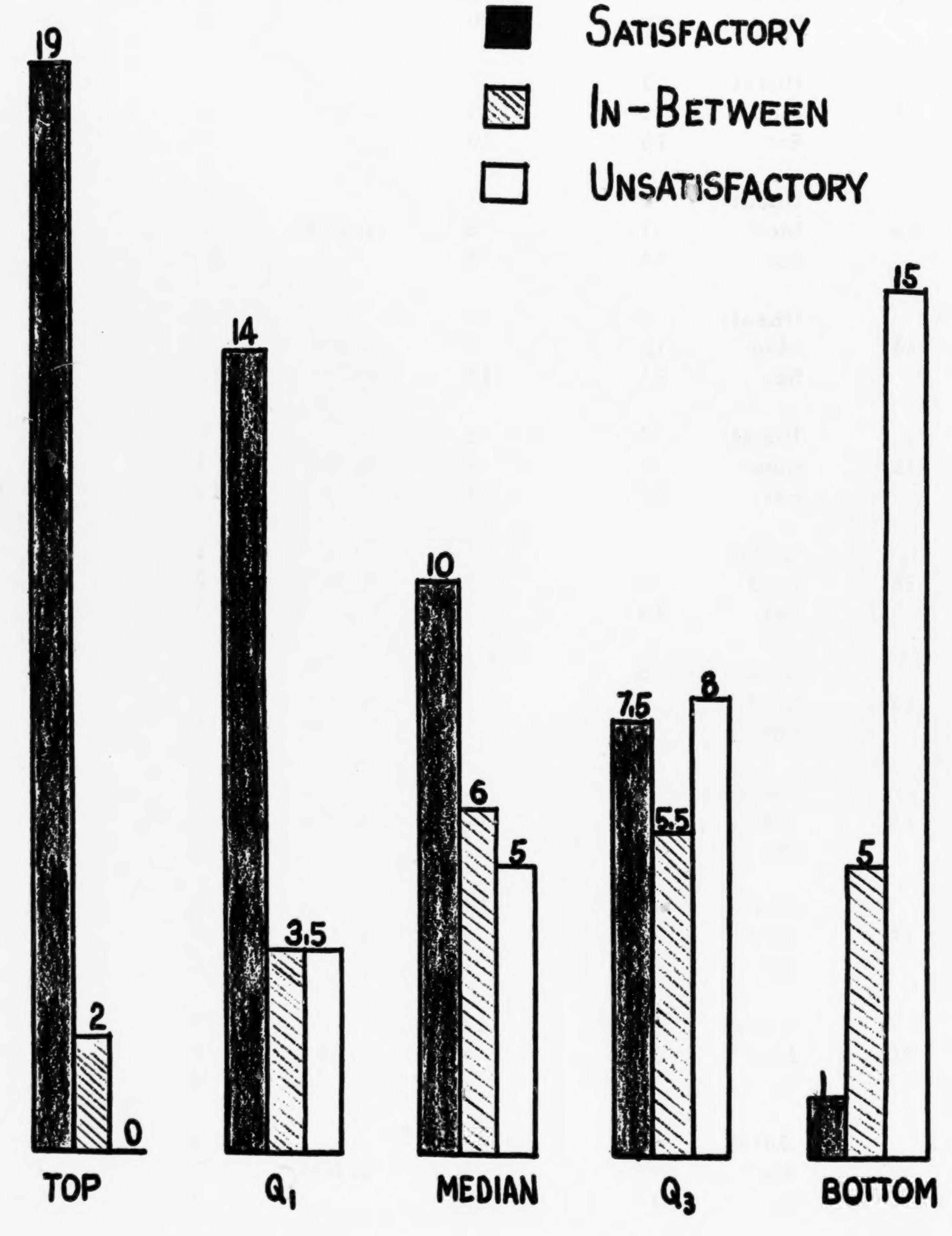
Relationship Between Level of Academic Training and Effectiveness of Personnel Functions

		Supervisors			Active Participants		
Function		**Trained**	**Not Trained**	**x^2**	**Trained**	**Not Trained**	**x^2**
1	Unsat	19	13		11	6	
	Med	10	26	7.006	18	16	3.904
	Sat	24	28	$P < 05$	39	14	
	Unsat	22	13		13	11	
2	Med	18	13	0.363	18	6	3.566
	Sat	7	6		5	6	
	Unsat	11	10		10	8	
3	Med	7	5	0.131	10	2	3.576
	Sat	13	10		9	2	
	Unsat				10	5	
4	Med	Data Missing			14	14	2.058
	Sat				15	7	
	Unsat	2	5		0	0	
5	Med	18	16	3.514	14	4	2.054
	Sat	41	24		15	12	
	Unsat	2	2				
6	Med	11	14	0.120	Data Missing		
	Sat	32	35				
	Unsat	5	10		2	3	
7	Med	14	10	6.105	8	4	2.007
	Sat	28	12	$P < 05$	8	11	
	Unsat	9	10		9	3	
8	Med	9	14	1.048	17	10	0.820
	Sat	27	25		33	21	
	Unsat	8	5		5	12	
9	Med	6	13	5.676	4	2	8.022
	Sat	32	19		41	20	$P < 05$
	Unsat	13	8		12	7	
10	Med	10	13	4.899	10	7	0.411
	Sat	28	11		27	13	

Function		Supervisors			Active Participants		
		Trained	Not Trained	x^2	Trained	Not Trained	x^2
	Unsat	2	2		0	0	
11	Med	5	5	0.144	2	1	0.006
	Sat	24	19		9	5	
	Unsat	3	2		1	1	
12	Med	9	5	1.098	1	1	0.085
	Sat	19	20		7	5	
	Unsat	3	1		0	2	
13	Med	7	8	1.426	1	1	3.261
	Sat	32	40		29	17	
	Unsat	4	0		2	0	
14	Med	12	18	6.203	4	15	6.842
	Sat	22	15	$P < 05$	12	12	$P < 05$
	Unsat	4	2		0	0	
15	Med	3	4	0.754	1	1	0.335
	Sat	17	16		14	6	
	Unsat	7	3		1	2	
16	Med	6	8	1.862	2	2	0.243
	Sat	13	9		3	5	
	Unsat	8	5		2	3	
17	Med	5	7	1.951	0	0	0.300
	Sat	7	3		1	2	
	Unsat	4	3		4	4	
18	Med	11	11	0.254	23	10	1.216
	Sat	17	13		16	10	
	Unsat	19	19		12	6	
19	Med	11	5	2.741	7	4	1.047
	Sat	4	1		2	0	
	Unsat	15	12		13	7	
20	Med	10	6	0.654	6	3	0.486
	Sat	5	2		7	2	
	Unsat	9	3		4	1	
21	Med	5	6	2.608	2	7	4,624
	Sat	13	13		7	6	

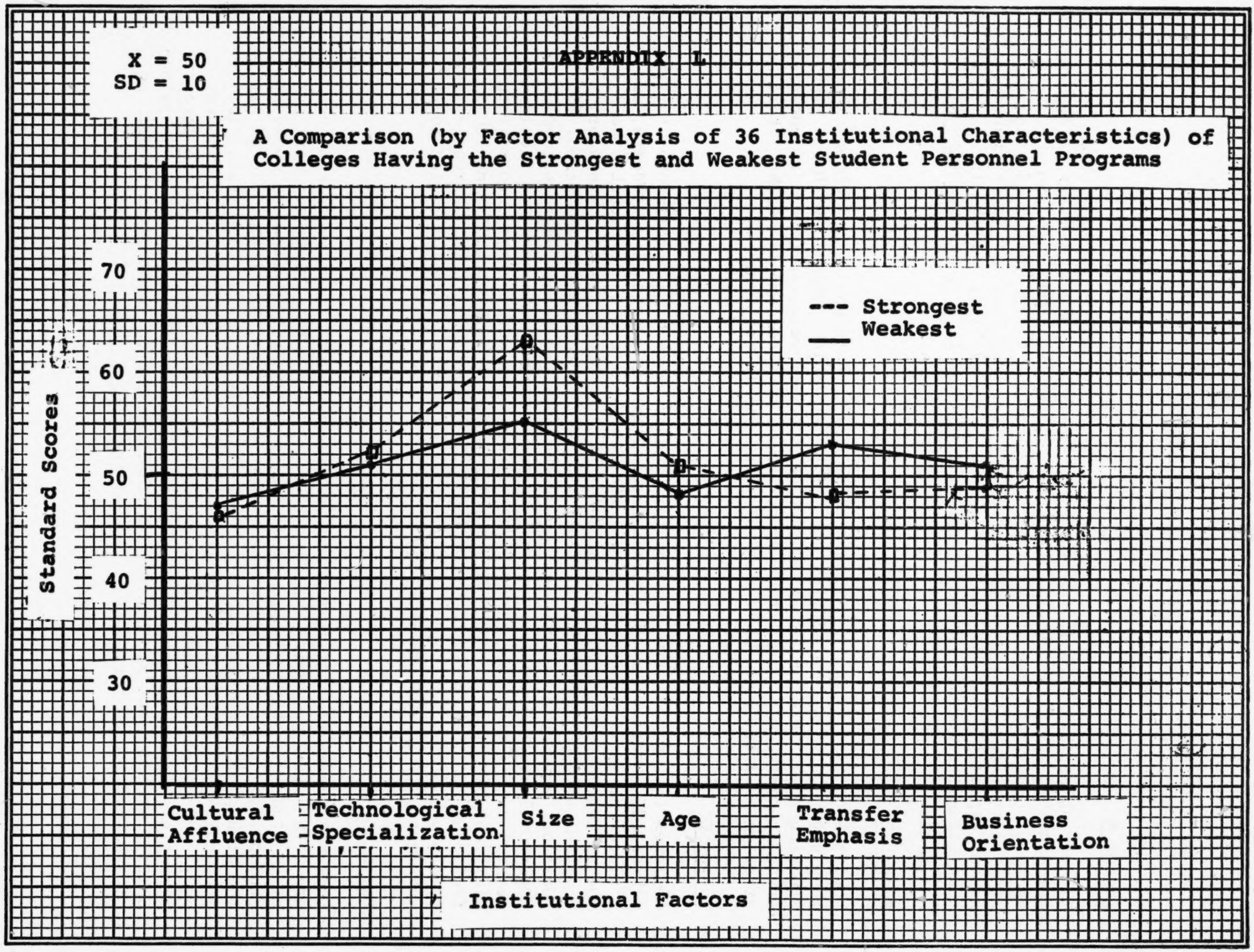
APPENDIX K

DISTRIBUTION OF APPRAISALS OF 21 BASIC FUNCTIONS WITHIN THE INDIVIDUAL JUNIOR COLLEGES



APPENDIX L

A Comparison (by Factor Analysis of 36 Institutional Characteristics) of Colleges Having the Strongest and Weakest Student Personnel Programs



Description of the Factors

Factor A

The variables with high loadings on this factor describe a college which has a large number of library books per student, relatively many foreign and out-of-state students, and many faculty members relative to the number of students. It is privately or religiously controlled, and is relatively well-financed. The factor appears to involve facilities such as the library and the faculty more than financial worth. An appropriate title, therefore, would be Cultural Affluence.

Factor B

Loadings on this factor describe a college with a technological emphasis and many students in technical programs, with many male students, with few students studying such fields as education and secretarial work, and with few out-of-state students. It is a public school which does not emphasize the liberal arts. A good title would be Technological Specialization.

Factor C

Colleges that would score high on this factor have large enrollments; large libraries; a varied, heterogeneous curriculum; many part-time students; and a placement service. The best title for this pattern would probably be Size. The college scoring high would probably be an urban-centered, open-door, comprehensive college, with a strong emphasis on continuing education. In addition, one would expect the high-scoring college to be characterized by an impersonal atmosphere, few personal contacts between students and faculty, several highly organized student subcultures, and a relatively clear status hierarchy of social groups. California junior colleges are distinguished from other colleges by a high loading on this factor. It is interesting, and probably contrary to popular belief, that California location failed to load substantially on any other factor.

Factor D

Loadings represent a college which is old, which has faculty and students who are both full-time, which has few working students but relatively many out-of-state students, which has not grown, which spends relatively much money per student, and which is a private school. An appropriate title would be Age. The high scoring college would probably resemble a small, four-year, liberal arts college. It would likely have many traditions, a residential student body, and an administration which conceived of its role as acting *in loco parentis*. Such a college would also be likely to have a selective admissions policy, although not necessarily one that emphasizes academic aptitude. An alternative title, therefore, might be Traditional Exclusiveness.

Factor E

Colleges characterized by the variables loading high on this factor emphasize teacher training and liberal arts and offer a heterogeneous environment. They have many students studying such fields as education, many graduates who go on to four-year colleges, and many faculty members with master's degrees. A common denominator to most of these variables is a requirement for further education beyond junior college, and, accordingly, many graduates of high scoring colleges seek advanced training. The best title for this factor would probably be Transfer Emphasis. One would expect the colleges scoring low on this factor to be terminal colleges primarily concerned with practical vocational training, making little effort to model their curriculum on what has been traditional for four-year colleges. The high scoring college would be concerned more with pre-professional, exploratory training.

Factor F

The high scoring college on this factor has relatively many students in fields characterized as Enterprising, relatively many faculty members with Ph.D.'s, high tuition, bright students, and many out-of-state students. In addition, it spends an above average amount of money per student. The interpretation of this factor is less manifest than was the case for the preceding factors. Two types of colleges appear to predominate. First, small private colleges on the East Coast with many students studying sales and retailing, and, second, large public colleges on the West Coast with many students studying management. The trait common to these two kinds of colleges appears to be an emphasis on providing students with a business skill having immediate utilitarian value. This factor, therefore, might best be named Business Orientation.

APPENDIX M

A Comparison of Respondents from Junior Colleges Matched by Size but Differentiated by Stronger versus Weaker Student Personnel Programs

Table I

Classification of Respondents by Job Titles

Classification by Job Title	Respondents Stronger Programs N	%	Weaker Programs N	%
Student Personnel Administrator	18	20.6	14	18.6
Registration & Admissions	14	16.0	17	22.6
Counseling & Guidance	37	42.5	31	41.3
Student Activities	13	14.9	11	14.6
Special Services (Placement Health, Remedial, etc.)	5	5.7	2	2.6
TOTAL	87	99.7	75	99.7

Chi square value not significant

Table II

Sources of Student Personnel Staff

Previous Position	Respondents Stronger Programs N	%	Weaker Programs N	%
Administration or Teaching	39	47.5	39	55.5
Student Personnel	38	46.4	26	37.1
Other	5	6.0	5	7.1
TOTAL	82	99.9	70	99.7

Chi square value not significant

Table III

Professional Identity (Self-Judged)

Professional Self-Classification	Respondents			
	Stronger	Programs	Weaker	Programs
	N	%	N	%
Student Personnel	70	83.3	49	69.0
Non-Student Personnel	7	8.3	16	22.5
Not Sure	7	8.3	6	8.4
TOTAL	84	99.9	71	99.9

Chi square 6.4 (five percent level of confidence)

Table IV

Participation in Student Personnel Workshops

Number of Workshops	Respondents			
	Stronger	Programs	Weaker	Programs
	N	%	N	%
None	51	60	54	72
One or more	34	40	21	28
TOTAL	85	100	75	100

Chi square value not significant

Table V

Graduate Levels Among Respondents

Highest Level	Respondents			
	Stronger	Programs	Weaker	Programs
	N	%	N	%
Masters or Below	34	40	35	47.2
Post-Masters	41	48.2	31	41.8
Doctorate	10	11.7	8	10.8
TOTAL	85	99.9	74	99.8

Chi sqaure value not significant

Table VI

A Comparison of Respondents According to a 30-Hour Minimum of Self-Reported Student Personnel Credits

Student Personnel Related Credits	Respondents Stronger Programs N	 %	 Weaker Programs N	 %
30 Hours or More	55	64.7	38	52
Less than 30 Hours	30	35.3	35	47.9
TOTAL	85	100	73	99.9

Chi square 5.6 (.02 level of confidence)

Table VII

A Comparison of Respondents According to Number of Courses in Student Personnel and Related Areas

Types of Courses		Number of Courses (Percent of Respondents) none N	 %	 one/two N	 %	 more than two N	 %	 X^2
Counseling	Stronger	17	20.0	47	55.2	21	24.7	$6.8^{(.05)}$
	Weaker	28	38.8	31	43.0	13	18.0	
Clinical Testing	Stronger	38	44.7	34	40.0	13	15.2	$9.9^{(.01)}$
	Weaker	50	68.4	16	22.2	7	9.7	
Educational Testing	Stronger	11	12.9	57	67.0	17	20.0	$7.2^{(.05)}$
	Weaker	22	30.5	38	52.7	12	16.6	
Group Guidance	Stronger	25	29.4	46	54.1	14	16.4	$6.7^{(.05)}$
	Weaker	35	48.6	30	41.6	7	9.7	
Occupational Information	Stronger	24	28.2	57	67.0	4	4.7	$6.4^{(.05)}$
	Weaker	34	47.2	33	45.8	5	6.9	
Other Student Personnel	Stronger	41	48.2	23	27.0	21	24.7	no significance
	Weaker	46	63.8	10	13.8	16	22.2	
Research	Stronger	17	20.0	31	36.4	37	27.7	no significance
	Weaker	27	37.5	20	27.7	25	34.7	
Junior College	Stronger	56	65.8	28	32.9	1	1.1	no significance
	Weaker	54	75.0	12	16.6	6	8.3	

APPENDIX N

Recent Federal Assistance

Congress has recognized the growing importance of junior colleges with the passing of the Higher Education Facilities Act and the Vocational Education Act in 1963. For the first time, junior colleges were named specifically. This recognition is particularly important because of the divergent patterns among states in classifying the junior college educationally. Some states view the junior college as an upward extension of public schools while others view them as part of higher education. Consequently, in the inevitable competition for federal funds at the state level, the failure to name junior colleges specifically has often worked to the detriment of junior college development. Now that Congress has expressed its intentions more explicitly junior colleges have received favorable support.

In June of 1965, a report "Federal Agency Programs and the Two-Year Institution of Higher Education" was published for the benefit of Congress. This report was prepared by the Legislative Reference Service at the request of Congressman John Brademas for the use of the House Committee on Education and Labor. For the first time, the report listed all federal programs under which junior colleges were eligible to receive support. Although the list is incomplete, several dozen programs are described. Those having particular significance for student personnel development are as follows:

a. National Defense Education Act - Recent revisions in this act provide Federal support for many programs in higher education and specifically provides support for the training of junior college counselors in institutes (Title V-A). Counselors in public junior colleges, technical institutes, and two-year university branches are eligible for assistance. The overall purpose of these institutes is defined as preparing counselors (1) to advise students of courses of study best suited to their ability, aptitudes, and skills; (2) to advise students in their decisions as to the type of educational program they should pursue, the vocation they should train for and enter, and the job opportunities in the various fields; and (3) to encourage students with outstanding aptitudes and ability to complete their secondary school education, and enter such institutions." Approximately 150 counselors for junior colleges and two-year technical institutes have been (or are in the process of being) trained through NDEA counseling and guidance institutes.

Title V-B provides for grants to be made to public and private institutions (working through designated state agencies) to strengthen testing programs for identifying students with outstanding aptitudes and abilities.

In addition, under Title III of this Act public junior colleges (if determined under state law to be an upward extension of secondary schools) are eligible for equipment and minor remodeling grants.

Title VII provides for grants arranged by contract for research and dissemination of information in media connected with education. This cooperative program supports a variety of research and demonstration activities in the broad field of education.

b. Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 - HEFA provides grants and loans to eligible colleges and universities to assist them in financing the construction, rehabilitation or improvement of certain types of academic facilities needed to expand enrollment capacity. Title I provides grants for construction of such academic facilities. Two-year institutions may participate in both these titles, and in fact, 103 junior colleges received grants and 133 obtained construction loans in 1964-65. New facilities provide or release space for housing of student personnel activities.

c. Vocational Education Act - Under this act public junior colleges may receive support for salary and travel of teachers, instructional equipment, research, administrative costs, and curriculum strengthening. VEA grants are given to State or local education agencies having administrative direction of public educational institutions or of a public vocational education program. Support is provided for "instruction for youth and adults in agricultural occupations, merchandising and marketing, homemaking, health occupations training, highly skilled technical occupations, and work relating to all phases of industrial design, processing, production, maintenance, as well as the service occupations." These provisions have particular significance for the occupational programs of the junior college and those serving as counselors for students in these programs.

Ten per cent of the annual appropriation under this act is reserved for research and development projects in which junior colleges are eligible to participate. It is possible, therefore, for junior colleges to obtain assistance to strengthen student personnel services under several provisions of this Act.

d. Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 - Under Title III, local educational agencies may receive grants for financing supplementary educational centers and services which will work with the elementary and secondary schools toward furnishing broader educational opportunities for all. Institutions of higher education are among the resources which can be used in planning and operating such a program. Some possible programs would involve remedial instruction, guidance and counseling, TV projects, psychological and social work services, and artistic and cultural activities.

e. Other Legislation - A two-year college may also receive support for certain programs under the Manpower Development Training Act, the Anti-poverty Program (Economic Opportunity Act), and the Civil Rights Act. Junior colleges involved in any or all of these programs may find it possible to support student personnel services to the extent that these services relate to the purposes of the respective programs. For example, a community college can, under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act, sponsor and receive support for institutes for high school teachers to strengthen their work in counseling students in problems arising from desegregation of formerly all-white schools.

Hopefully, these trends within the Federal government to support junior colleges and student personnel work will continue for without such assistance, the hope for any marked improvement in student services on a long range basis.